The Nation.

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The Week.

THE defeat of the Springer bill in the House by twenty-seven majority was not entirely unexpected. That its defeat was due in part to the ill-timed efforts of ex-Speaker Reed to introduce a little politics in the national finances seems to be clear. If Mr. Reed had given a hearty support to the bill, it cannot be doubted that he would have carried at least fourteen Republican votes which were cast in the negative, and this change would have saved the bill. The main point to secure was the provision making the bonds payable in gold. That the House was really in favor of this was shown by the vote on the proposed amendment of Mr. Bell to add the words "or silver," so that the bonds should be paid in either silver or gold. This was a crucial test, and the House voted it down by a decisive majority. But after this proof had been given of the sanity of the House the bill was killed by politics, and for this Mr. Reed is largely responsible. The Reed substitute would have been the next best thing after the defeat of the Springer bill, but the vote had to be taken on the substitute first. Of course the friends of the Springer bill could not vote to kill their own measure in advance by adopting the substitute. The Democrats as a party will have to take the penalty of non-action in the financial crisis, which the President so impressively brought to their attention, but there are many Republican members who ought to be severely dealt with, because better things are expected from them than from the Democrats. If they had taken the high position that they took on the Sherman repeal bill, the Springer bill would have been passed by a decisive majority.

The President's communication to Congress on the subject of the $65,000,000 gold loan leaves very little to be said in the way of comment. It is all embraced in the fact that the lenders of the money ask 3 per cent. interest if the loan is made payable specifically in gold, but otherwise 3¾ per cent. It is very easy to say that all Government bonds have been paid in gold, and therefore all of them will be so paid, whether that word is used in the law or not. The lenders think that there is some risk, and they measure it by ¾ of one per cent. They are one of the parties to a bargain and the Government is another. The two meet on an equal footing. If the Government prefers to pay $16,000,000 more than is necessary for the use of the money rather than pronounce the word "gold," it is at liberty to do so, of course, but the spectacle will be the most humiliating, in a financial sense, that the world ever saw. Even the foolish State of Idaho knows better than this. So also does Arizona. This is a case where all the members of the community are individually sane but collectively mad. Each one knows how to carry on his private business, but is *non-compos* as regards the public business. The chances are, however, that the House, when brought face to face with the gold clause unencumbered with any other question, will adopt it by a good majority. What may be done by a Senate as incapable as the present one, no man can predict.

The President says that he has made this loan in pursuance of section 3700 of the revised statutes, which reads as follows:

> "The secretary of the treasury may purchase coin with any of the bonds or notes of the United States authorized by law, at such rates and upon such terms as he may deem most advantageous to the public interest."

This law was first enacted in 1862, being a part of the war measures of that period, but, having been reënacted in 1874 as a part of the revised statutes, it has received the stamp of permanence. Its existence appears to have been overlooked until now. It supplies any defect, if there were any before, in the chain of title by which these bonds and the previous ones have been issued. The discovery of these latent powers, or something else, has produced a remarkable "flop" in the editorial department of the *Sun*, which now applauds President Cleveland to the skies for his masterly handling of the national finances. Even the *Tribune*, which has been a harder case than the *Sun* during the late troubles, is now moved to say:

> "The President announces a new loan; and although the rate of interest is higher than was expected, he is entitled to much praise for having thus protected the national honor, at this or any other price. He had to deal with a Congress which, as its votes proved, was inclined to prefer national bankruptcy. That disaster, at least, the President has averted, and if an impartial criticism must attribute to him a large share of the danger, it must also give him without stint the credit for averting it. He most unwisely involved the country, but he has honorably adopted the only method of relief."

The horror and dismay of the New England Senators at the news that the Hawaiian Government is taking itself so seriously as to condemn revolutionists against it to death, are partly comic, partly pathetic. They exploded so violently over the barbarity and heathenism of the Queen, when she talked of having the heads of some traitors, that to find the heroic missionary republic following her wicked example leaves them in a ridiculous plight. Yet they make it plain that their chief concern is neither humanity nor self-consistency, but a fear that all their fine annexation plans may be upset. Senator Hale did not conceal his distress over the prospect that "the almost universal sentiment of the American people in favor of the existing Government in Hawaii" would take a dangerous turn if the Missionaries' Sons took to hanging Americans. The Jingoes have evidently never regarded the Hawaiian Government as a real government. It was a good-enough stop-gap, a simulacrum of government, to last till they got their hands on the country. But they have talked so nobly about the pure republicanism and devotion of the self-perpetuating oligarchy now in power in the islands, have raged with such a show of deadly fury against the royalists, that the Missionaries' Sons came to think they couldn't better fire the American Jingo heart than by dealing out death to royalist traitors. The poor fellows never dreamed that they would be upsetting the whole kettle of fish.

If such cases of illegal arrest and arbitrary imprisonment and secret deportation as have been going on in Hawaii had occurred under a royalist government, we should have known what adjectives to apply to them. If an attorney-general serving under a miserable queen had gone into the prison where his victims were and sworn at them profusely, we should have taken it as a matter of course; but what shall we say when the chief prosecutor of a missionary republic falls to swearing like a pirate? These things are a sore affliction to the patriots at Washington, and they know not what to say except that Cleveland and Gresham have a terrible responsibility to bear for this business. The Hartford *Post* severely rebukes the Administration for the "ridiculous haste and eagerness to lay before Congress information which is likely to reflect upon the humane character of the Provisional Government." It does look like an affront, we must admit. The true course would have been to suppress Willis's despatches and deny the accuracy of the press news. That would have given the patriots time to turn round. As it is, they are comfortless, since England continues in brutal indifference to all that goes on in Hawaii. An inquiry at the Foreign Office on Saturday as to what would be done about the Englishman sentenced to death in Honolulu, brought the answer that nothing would be done. Not a ship sent, gun fired, or flag hoisted! How long will Americans endure these repeated insults?

The precious Senate rules were delightfully in evidence on Saturday. All the parliamentarians were agreed that Senate rule

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xvi. was absolutely fatal to the incorporation of the Hawaiian cable amendment in the consular and diplomatic bill. But Senator Manderson cynically said that the "principal merit of the rules is that we can so quickly get rid of them when we desire," and so the Vice-President obligingly put it to the Senate whether the amendment was in order. It was voted, 36 to 25, that it was, and away went the rules. But they came back a moment later in full dignity. Senator Lodge proposed his consular-reform bill as an amendment to the same act. This certainly appeared as "germane" to a consular and diplomatic bill as a $3,000,000 cable line. But no, it was "new legislation," and a chorus of voices called for its rigid exclusion. The rules revived and the Lodge bill died.

Senator Hawley and others having referred in terms of extravagant praise to Senator Morgan's "luminous and wonderful" speech on the cable amendment, we turned with aroused anticipations to Saturday's *Congressional Record*, where the speech was printed in full. We agree with Senator Hawley that it was wonderful. It was even fearful and wonderful. Never were such moving truths uttered about "the focal point of the sea-power of the Pacific," never was more eloquently set forth the infernal power of Britain, not only "to dictate a gold policy to President Cleveland and our Government," but to deceive the very elect in America. The Ala[illegible] Senator is not fooled, however. He sees through the tricks and twists of British diplomacy. The other Jingoes, even the Jingo editors, have confessed, by their dead silence, that they were baffled by England's giving up her Mosquito protectorate. But Morgan sees through it unerringly. It means, he says, that "they have abandoned all hope and expectation of getting control of the transit through the Isthmus of Darien for a ship canal," and are starting "a quiet movement" for a Hawaiian cable "which will give them, largely, the control of the Pacific Ocean." Of course, if a cable will give control of the Pacific Ocean, it is cheap at $3,000,000, or $30,000,000, and no wonder the Senate voted to build it, after this luminous and wonderful demonstration, rules or no rules.

The Senate debate on the Hawaiian cable will go far towards restoring the reputation of that body for logic and statesmanship. No one can read it without gaining a wholly new view of the functions and possibilities of an ocean cable. Captain Mahan will have to revise his next edition, and explain, with the Republican Senators, how a cable, if only one end of it is on American soil, can make entirely nugatory the biggest fleet the British can collect anywhere along its line or at the other end. We must say, however, that Senator Palmer took unfair advantage of Senator Morgan in asking him, the chairman of the committee on foreign relations, by what cable lines despatches were now sent to our fleet in Chinese waters. Mr. Morgan said he did not know, thus delicately implying that state secrets could not be given away like that. Senator Sherman took occasion to deal a blow at England, wiping out on his bare assertion her cable connection with Australia, which, he said, did not exist. But, of course, men whose heads are full of war and naval strategy and annexing islands, and being great and glorious, cannot be expected to know the wretched details of the location of submarine telegraph lines.

It is an interesting fact that there are no States whose bankers cling more firmly to the gold standard than those which send to the Senate and House silver Senators and Representatives. Congressman Bryan of Nebraska has always been one of the loudest advocates of free coinage, but, during the recent financial flurry, the bankers of Omaha hoarded gold until they had nearly $3,000,000 of the metal locked up in their vaults. So, too, the bankers of Denver were among the worst gold misers in the country during the panic of 1893, when Senators Teller and Wolcott were sounding the praises of silver. It is not "Wall Street" or "the money power of the East" alone that clings to the money standard of the civilized world. Wherever there is an organization of business men whose commercial relations bring them into touch with the laws of trade, the financial lunatics and demagogues find a force resisting them which they cannot afford to disregard. Senator Vest of Missouri has already discovered that he made a bad blunder when he ridiculed the attitude of the trade organizations of his State in his recent speech.

Wherever the Populists secure control of a State on pledges of "reform," they proceed to outdo the old parties in extravagance and corruption. The new Populist-Republican Legislature in North Carolina, whose members were voluble on the stump last fall about the hordes of needless office-holders, began work by employing a much larger number of doorkeepers, laborers, and other attendants than was ever known before. Gov. Tillman's successor in South Carolina reports that nearly all the officials in charge of dispensaries in that State, under the new liquor law established by Tillman, are behind with their accounts, some of them in considerable sums. The Populist administration in Kansas went out in a cloud of scandals, its management of the benevolent institutions having been particularly disgraceful. The new Republican officials in Colorado found that a lot of furniture belonging to the State had been stolen by the Populists, and the Populist superintendent of education has been forced to confess to petty stealings by false entries in his expense account. Third parties have usually made a pretty bad showing for their brief existence, but we have never had anything to compare with the record of "the People's party" during the last four years.

The "dressed-stone law," passed by the last New York Legislature, is one of the most perfect specimens of Labor legislation seen in many a day. It requires that all stone of any description used in State or municipal works within this State shall be "worked, dressed, or carved on the grounds where such works are being carried on, or within the boundaries of the State, or within the boundaries of the municipality." The effect of this is to increase the cost of all public works using stone from 20 to 100 per cent. The cost of repaving Avenue A, it was discovered by the city authorities, would be increased $200,000 because of the requirement, and the work has been postponed in consequence. The rapid-transit commissioners say, if the law is not repealed it will be necessary for them to use brick instead of stone in constructing the proposed underground road. For some kinds of stone-cutting there are no facilities in the city, and special works would have to be established. Of course, the effect of the law is to increase the burdens of the laboring classes by increasing taxation, and at the same time there is not more but less work for the stone-cutters, for the enormously increased expense compels contractors to abandon a great deal of work which they would otherwise undertake. Yet in spite of all this it is very difficult to get support at Albany for a bill repealing the law. Fear of the Labor vote is so potent that nobody ventures to take up the case vigorously, and unless some powerful pressure is brought to bear upon the members, the absurd law will stand.

Col. Waring's replies to the questions and requests of the Drivers' and Hostlers' Union of his department were frank and to the point in all cases, but they were especially so in reference to two subjects of vital importance in the discipline of the street-cleaning force. The union asked him to do away with the "irresponsible spies" whom the former commissioner had employed, and Col. Waring replied that instead of abolishing this system he proposed to "extend it very largely," because "unfortunately there are many men among the drivers of ash-carts who cannot be trusted to do their duty, to keep out of liquor-saloons, or to take proper care of their horses." The union also asked him "to stamp out the merciless system of blackmail which is practised upon employees by superiors," and Col. Waring replied that he should do this "in the most relentless manner, remitting no effort to rid the service of every officer who has been guilty of the crime indicated." The employees ought to be satisfied with these

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conditions. The spy system will serve to drive out of the service all the shirkers and incompetents, and the abolition of blackmail, which undoubtedly was almost universal under Brennan and Andrews, will give to every man on the force every penny that his own labor earns. Hardly a man of the old force was permitted to receive his full pay. Some of it was taken out by a boss, or a district leader, or some Tammany man with a "pull," before it reached his hand. If Col. Waring can stop this infamous but regular Tammany business, he will confer upon the laborers of his force a far greater boon than any other that they could ask.

A "symposium" on what is styled "the strife between labor and capital" appeared in last week's *Independent*, but the careful reader will not feel that he has gained much from its perusal. Bishop Huntington thinks that there should be a definite contract between the employer and the employed, and that "the contract should include a promise by both parties to abide by the award of a board of arbitration." But the Brooklyn strike has again illustrated the familiar fact that even a superior class of laborers, like the linemen, will not keep any of their promises. Brother Hollister of the New Lebanon Shakers has a great many partial remedies, among them a restriction of the rate of interest, prohibition of the liquor traffic, minority representation, and the issue by the Government of full legal-tender notes "sufficient to pay its debts"; but his "best and only complete remedy is for people to act from love of the neighbor, in lieu of supreme love to self." Bishop Newman thinks highly of profit-sharing for the laborer, but his "sympathies are not limited to the working classes," and go out to "the capitalist in his palace spending a sleepless night thinking how he can meet the obligations of the morrow"; and he comfortably concludes that the solution is not in trades-unions, arbitration, or legislation, "but in brotherly sympathy, common honesty, and to do as one would be done by." Rabbi Schlesinger of Chicago holds that "the coming solution of the social strife can be nothing else but religion," while the Rev. W. W. Fenn of the same city has great faith in boards of arbitration and conciliation. "The spirit of altruism," says a Baptist minister of Pittsfield, Mass.; "Establish the kingdom of heaven," says an Episcopal clergyman of Tacoma, Washington; "Arbitration is the simplest and most promising means," according to Cardinal Gibbons of Baltimore. President Eliot of Harvard makes the humiliating confession that he has little idea what the solution is going to be, but his impression is that "this strife, which has been developing for hundreds of years, will be removed only by gradual processes in operation through hundreds of years." Henry George humorously concludes the "symposium" by advertising his nostrum: "The only possible solution of what is called the social strife between capital and labor is the single tax."

The English ministry have opened Parliament with a very formidable programme, which will meet with obstinate resistance. Not to speak of home rule, their neglect of which has cost them the loss of the Parnellite votes, they are to disestablish the Welsh church, to "control" the liquor traffic, to abolish plural voting and to provide for the payment by the state of the expenses of elections, to unify the metropolis, and to arrange some mode of reinstating the evicted tenants in Ireland. The speech makes no mention of the reform of the Lords, but Lord Rosebery said a resolution on that subject would be introduced in the Commons by and by. It is safe to say that no part of this programme can be carried out, except the Irish evicted-tenants bill, on which both parties have agreed or nearly agreed. Every other bill will be certainly defeated in the Lords. The Welsh church fights with the English church at its back, and, in spite of Welsh fierceness, will make a desperate defence, and the plural vote has a powerful and yearly increasing number, even of "the philosophical Radicals," among its defenders. Property is more and more alarmed by numbers. All parties, however, will enjoy having election expenses paid by the Government. There was no mention of Irish home rule in the Queen's speech, but there will undoubtedly be much mention of it when Redmond settles down to work. On the whole, the thing which seems most likely is dissolution in the early spring, a Conservative triumph, the reception of Chamberlain into the Conservative fold with a seat in the cabinet and a peerage in the near by-and-by, and a strong Socialist programme to keep the masses quiet. In this field both parties are running a vigorous race, with the Conservatives slightly ahead.

We have more than once had occasion to point out a special advantage that Paris has to offer to the student of politics in having, within easy distance, so complete an exemplification of the delights of socialistic municipal government as is to be seen any day in the commune of St.-Denis. Just as the naturalist, or the animal-painter, may spend his mornings at the Jardin d'Acclimatation in the study of foxes or wolves, so the youthful publicist may go out to St.-Denis and watch the Socialists, uncaged and free as in a jungle, and so all the more fit to be observed. The present régime has lasted for three years. At the elections in 1892 the Republicans were so badly split into groups that they elected only eight members of the Municipal Council, while the Socialists won twenty-four seats, although they were in a minority. In order to demonstrate the fact that this was so, the Republican members of the Council, together with two repenting Socialists, resigned and sought reëlection, in the hope that, when the truth of the matter should appear, the Municipal Council would be dissolved by the prefecture of the Seine. They were reëlected by a large majority, resigned again and again, and were sent back each time by an ever-increasing number of votes. The prefecture of the Seine, however, has, so far, paid no attention to this demonstration of the electors, and the Municipal Council of St.-Denis remains undissolved, with the Socialists in full sway.

It has been, on the whole, a shade less grasping than Tammany—partly, perhaps, because there was less in sight to grasp—and it has indulged in priest-baiting, but otherwise its course has been of a sort to remind one of Tammany at every turn. Perhaps in some ways St.-Denis has surpassed the methods of the Wigwam. To seize upon the public charity fund, and distribute it secretly to individuals in order to promote strikes, was a fine touch. So also was the masterly management of the sinking-fund, which was muddled away completely, and the treasury emptied, so that a new loan of two millions of francs was required. But perhaps the very finest stroke of all was the instant resort to McKinley methods by the Council as soon as the public chest was empty. They began to double up the *octroi* all around. It is true that these taxes fell heaviest on the poor, as the councillors themselves admitted, but they fancied that, being indirect, they would not be felt.

The two big Chinese ironclads *Chen-Yuen* and *Ting-Yuen* have been sunk off Wei-Hai-Wei. These are the ships that escaped with little damage in the Yalu sea-fight, thereby giving so much comfort to Secretary Herbert. Wanting to build four such men-of-war himself, it was pleasant to point out, as he did in his annual report, that they had shown themselves invulnerable. He argued powerfully that it would never do to trust to cruisers, which might go to the bottom from a single shot. We must have some big fellows, like the Chinese ships, that could take a terrible pounding without harm. But the big fellows have now gone to join the little fellows at the bottom of the sea. Let no one imagine, however, that this affects the argument. What is the use, as Franklin said, of being a reasonable being if you cannot invent a reason for what you are bent on doing? That the Chinese battleships were not sunk in the Yalu fight was a convincing reason why we should have some like them. If anything were lacking to make the argument complete, it is now furnished by the sinking of the same ships. We are sure that we are only anticipating the logic of the forthcoming debate in the House on the proposition to build four new battle-ships, at $4,000,000 each.

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THE OUTLOOK FOR SOUND MONEY.

THE silver-men had nothing to felicitate themselves upon in the voting on the Springer bill last Thursday, but they take great comfort in contemplating the Senate. A canvass of the voting strength of fiat money in that noble body was made and given out the week before, with the result that forty-eight Senators were for silver, or something equally bad, while but thirty-nine were for the money of the business and civilized world. With the changes in personnel since made and to be made, the preponderance of fifty-cent-dollar Senators will be even greater in the next Senate. We presume it is necessary to concede that a majority of ten to twelve can be reckoned upon as mulish opponents of sound financial legislation, even if not as reckless advocates of a depreciated currency. The silver-men are in great glee over this showing. They point back to the time when the repeal of the Sherman law was forced through the Senate by a majority of eleven, and assert that they are now stronger than they then were by at least twenty votes. These figures and claims cannot be disputed, yet the inference the silver-men make, namely, that this country is going to a silver basis, can be successfully disputed, and that by an analysis of the very voting strength which they boast of in the Senate.

According to the canvass made, which is no doubt reasonably accurate, the States, voting by their representatives in the Senate, stand as follows on the question of bonds and currency frankly payable in gold:

For.	Against.
Maine,	Alabama,
New Hampshire,	Arkansas,
Vermont,	California,
Massachusetts,	Colorado,
Connecticut,	Florida,
Rhode Island,	Georgia,
New York,	Idaho,
New Jersey,	Indiana,
Pennsylvania,	Kansas,
Delaware,	Missouri,
Maryland,	Mississippi,
Ohio,	Montana,
Michigan,	Nevada,
Illinois,	North Carolina,
Iowa,	North Dakota,
Minnesota,	South Carolina,
Wisconsin—17.	South Dakota,
	Tennessee,
	Virginia,
	Washington,
	Wyoming—21.

Six States—Kentucky, Louisiana, Nebraska, Oregon, Texas, and West Virginia—must be set down as doubtful, inasmuch as their Senators were, and doubtless will remain, divided, one for and one against.

This looks black enough, but we must not stop here. Further inquiries will show that the forces which ultimately make the laws and settle things in this country are enormously against the silverites and cheap-money men of all descriptions. Take the test of population. The seventeen States ready to go unequivocally and finally to the gold standard contain 34,415,000 inhabitants. In the twenty-one opposing States there are but 22,522,000. Now in the long run numbers count in this country. Preponderating numbers killed slavery, and will kill bad money. The majority rules, ultimately, even in the Senate. The Senate was once the stronghold of slavery just as it is now the stronghold of cheap money. What made the cheeks of Calhoun and Davis blanch, as they faced the future, was the swelling population of the free States. In that they saw the doom of slavery, and the 12,000,000 margin of population now in favor of honest money means, in like manner, the doom of a depreciated currency.

The test of wealth shows a preponderance still more striking in favor of sound currency. According to the census returns, the seventeen States which stand for a stable standard of value report capital of all kinds amounting to $5,065,000,000; the twenty-one opposing States return but $943,000,000. Can it be imagined that four-fifths of the property of any country would allow itself to be imperilled and cut in two in value at the demand of one-fifth? The thing is unthinkable. In fact, this great preponderating mass of property has already taken sure precautions against being caught in that way. Legislation may inconvenience and harass it, but cannot despoil it, as long as there are courts to enforce contracts. One of the cheering omens for the future is the fact that State after State in the West is learning the lesson that every blow they deliver at the security of property or the standard of value hurts them more than the hated capitalists they aim at. Whatever may be said about the weakened rights of property, it is still the strongest force in the political world. That it is so overpoweringly against degraded currency is pledge sufficient that the country will continue to be against it.

The political test, finally, is as encouraging to the friends of sound money as either of the others. The 17 States firm for the gold standard cast 223 electoral votes. The 21 others cast but 167, leaving 54 doubtful. Moreover, politically speaking, it is impossible to combine even those 167 electoral votes in any one party column, or for any one Presidential candidate. One-quarter of them is Republican, and may, in desperation, "flock by itself," as the silver Republicans threaten that it will, but cannot mix with the three-quarters Democratic. If the latter undertakes to absorb the Republican one-quarter, it will find itself whittled down to one-quarter or less. On the other hand, if the sound-money Republicanism of the East and North goes after the silver idols, it will lose the East and North in the act. What will it profit the Republican party to get the thirty-six electoral votes of the silver States, and lose as many in New York alone, to say nothing of the hundred or so that would be lost elsewhere? As the thing stands now, a sound-money President has a clear majority in the electoral college, and no other kind of a President can possibly get a majority in it. This is the strategic fact for the business world to tie to. It is also the fact for the Republican managers to tie to. Any alliance with the silver Republicans which means wavering for a hair's breadth on the money question, will be as fatal as an alliance with the Populists. The country, tried by every test, is for honest money, and any party that wants to carry the country must be for honest money.

THE CONGRESSIONAL REMEDY FOR RAILROAD STRIKES.

WE have now before us the bill pending in Congress for the regulation of the relations between railroad corporations and their employees. It is really a bill providing for voluntary arbitration, the award of which is to be binding in law. Its object is to prevent the interruption of the carrier business by labor strikes, like those of last summer. It begins by providing that the wages of all employees of railroads "shall be just and reasonable." But it contains no definition of "just and reasonable," although this definition is what the world is seeking everywhere with strong crying and tears. Clearly what is just and reasonable in a prosperous road would be unjust and unreasonable in a struggling or non-paying one. Moreover, the pay-roll of a railroad is so large a proportion of its operating expenses that its adjustment is one of the most important and difficult branches of railroad management. In fact, the man who can say what it ought to be, is the man who should manage the road. If the arbitrators could decide it, the railroad companies would certainly entice them away from the position of arbitrators by the offer of large salaries. The matter is of small importance, however, because the bill provides no sanction for the payment of such wages. It merely expresses a pious opinion on the part of Congress as to what the rate of wages ought to be, in which every rational person will agree. It is very like saying that every railroad manager should be a just and pure man.

After the award is made and has become binding by being filed in the clerk's office in the district court, if the employees do not like it, what is the remedy? Here comes the crucial point of all this railroad legislation. Railroad service, as every one knows, is continuous, needs to be prompt, accurate, and cheerful, and to be performed by willing, faithful men. On no service in the country does the safety of so much life and property depend. Well, how are these dissatisfied employees to be compelled to render such service? How are they to be restrained from evincing their dissatisfaction by assaulting "scabs," tearing up rails, destroying bridges, and burn-

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ing freight-houses? Why, by a suit in equity for specific performance. They are expressly forbidden after the award to leave their employment by reason of such dissatisfaction without giving thirty days' notice. But if an employee gives thirty days' notice, he may go—subject, however, to pursuit by the company in a chancery suit. If the company should wish to get rid of him, it must not discharge him without thirty days' notice also, and should he, during the pendency of the arbitration, "unite in, aid, or abet strikes or boycotts" against the company, it is to have its action against him "on the case" for damages. What with the chancery suit for specific performance, and the "action on the case" for damages, the strikers would have reason to tremble in their boots. The provisions forbidding the companies to restrain employees from joining labor organizations we need not comment on. With the powers both of the Court of Chancery and of the common-law "action on the case" at their disposal, what need they care about labor combinations?

The original bill, as compounded by Mr. McGann and the "labor committee," contained a section providing that, whenever a railroad strike became of such magnitude as to obstruct or prevent the operation of the road, the attorney-general was to file a bill in the Circuit Court praying for the appointment of a receiver, who was to take possession of the property during the strike, and operate it for the benefit, the bill did not say of whom. The defendants in the suit were to be not only the corporation and employees engaged on strike, but "all known corporations, organizations, or individuals participating therein, or aiding or abetting them." When the bill was submitted to the chiefs of the railroad organizations, conductors, firemen, locomotive engineers, trainmen, and railroad telegraphers, they asked for the erasure of this section in the following most sensible language:

"We object to the provisions of section 10 of the original bill in their entirety. We believe that it covers ground not contemplated by the preceding provisions of the bill. We believe it can be eliminated without affecting in any way the intent or effect of this proposed law. But we feel that it could easily be construed in such a way as to entirely defeat the object aimed at. We believe that it contemplates investing the representatives of the general Government with authority which is not consistent with the accepted understanding of the rights of property-owners or individual citizens. In short, we look upon it as a long step in the direction of Government paternalism, or eventual Government ownership of railways, or, to use a briefer and stronger term, state socialism, pure and simple."

So we see that members of Congress are actually ready to outrun the labor organizations in attacks on property and private rights for the satisfaction of a class which has never yet made known its grievances in a peaceable, orderly manner. Section 10 might well have been drawn by a boy at school, so much indifference does it display to the complication of public and private interests which in great commercial communities inevitably grow up around every service rendered to the public, whether by the state or by individuals.

This whole problem of railroad labor contains but two questions: One is, Can any corporation concede the right of an employee to stay indefinitely in its service on terms fixed by himself and his fellows? Is it possible to carry on any business on that basis?

The other is, Does the law owe protection to the thousands who are eager for the work which strikers abandon? On what principle can it be denied them?

It is obviously easy enough to negotiate and come to terms with a peaceable, reasonable man; nearly all the business of life is done through such negotiations. If, however, one of the parties in most negotiations were certain, if you differed with him, to hit you over the head, break your furniture, and try to set fire to your house, negotiation would cease, and civilization would perish, and mediæval barbarism would resume its sway. In this railroad matter, the roads are really struggling for civilization against large bands of barbarous men, into whose hands our legislators and officials are all the while trying to deliver us, and to prevent their learning the very first lesson of civilized life, which is that no dispute must be settled by violence.

THE HAWAIIAN NEWS.

THE calm with which the Hawaiian news of the Queen's abdication was received both here and in Washington caused the public genuine surprise. We expected it to throw the whole missionary community into the violent agitation with which all previous intelligence from the island had been received. But the *Tribune* dismissed it in a small perfunctory paragraph, and Lodge, Frye, Boutelle & Company, far from expending any "dust and sweat" on it, passed it over in a sort of mournful silence. Yet, rightly considered, it was the most important "triumph of the Gospel" yet achieved in the lands of the heathen. In fifty years or thereabouts the missionaries have not only converted the natives to Christianity, and witnessed the reduction of their numbers by one-half, but their Sons, aided by other believers, have got hold of about two-thirds of the land of the island, and all the fertile portion of it. The folly of leaving the natives in possession of the Government, after the property had passed into the hands of foreigners, then became apparent to the humblest white Christian in the place, and it was determined to dethrone the Queen. It would have been difficult to dethrone her for want of title, or on account of her color—or on account of the poor quality of her government, considering the quality of that of some of our own States. So it was determined to dethrone her for unchastity and heathen practices. But to do this it was necessary that somebody should commit treason and expose himself to the loss of his head. So it was decided to get the United States minister to join in a righteous conspiracy to persuade the Queen that it was the United States that was deposing her, and to land sailors for that purpose. Accordingly she surrendered, and the Christians turned to Washington to get themselves annexed, taking care to get there before the Queen's people and secure this great triumph of righteousness before they arrived. They did not secure annexation, but they were successful in setting up a God-fearing, chaste, and self-sacrificing republic, in which every man was to have his vote and every child his school, and all money was to be made by the sale of Sunday books and newspapers.

After a few months of this happy and holy régime, which the wicked Cleveland and the blundering Gresham tried to upset by diabolical negligences, plots, and ignorances, some of the natives determined to commit treason by an armed rising against this good missionary-and-sugar Government. They failed, as wicked men are apt to fail, and all fell into the hands of the Christian police, after a brief residence in the extinct crater of a volcano. Of the atrocity of their offence we can hardly trust ourselves to speak. To employ heathen violence to overthrow what Christian violence and fraud have set up, is almost a crime against human nature. These misguided men are being tried by court-martial, and how good it is of the Sons of the Missionaries to try them even by court-martial, or to try them at all. Instant execution by their captors would have been too good for them. Why should they be tried when taken with arms in their hands? The one good reason for trying them that we see is, that the proper punishment of treason, which is decapitation, may be inflicted on them in the public square. We can recall no case in which treason has been committed under such circumstances of aggravation. A rising against any established government is an awful crime, but what shall we say of a rising against a government of good, wise, chaste men, who seek nothing through their rule except the elevation of the natives and the triumph of the true religion?

The Queen, however, has done worse than commit treason. Gladly would we pass over without comment her last outrage on the republic, but we have a duty to perform, and we will perform it. She knew well—she must have known—that in claiming the crown and pretending to consider herself wrongfully deposed, she was rendering the only service in her power to the men who, for her sake and that of her people, have set up a republic in their midst. As a centre of monarchical and especially British intrigue, as a person for conspirators to rally round and restore to the throne, she knew well how important she was not only to the republic and to the New York *Tribune* but to Lodge, Frye, Boutelle & Co., who are doing "the

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work of the world" in Washington. Knowing this, however, she has formally, and in her prison, surrounded by cocoanut bombs, *abdicated*. She has signed away all claim to the throne in the most formal manner. She has left no one to furnish a centre for monarchical or British intrigues. There is now no one for the rebels to rally round. No wonder the news has created no excitement in Hawaiian circles in this country. It is too atrocious an offence for anything but silent sorrow. It justifies everything that the Missionaries have said of this wicked, wicked woman. A week ago we would have protested against her execution for treason. We would have said that although, by both human and divine law, she merited the fate of Charles I., yet, considering how much milder manners have become during the last two hundred years, considering the clemency of our own treatment of Jefferson Davis and other rebels, a plea should be entered for a gentler punishment—say for perpetual imprisonment, or banishment to a Populist State. But now we have not a word to say against her execution. Let her be beheaded, and her blood be on her own head.

We would we could stop here, but if we are not greatly mistaken, Dole—President Dole of the republic, our own Dole—is also a traitor. He is advocating the cession of Neckar Island to a British telegraph company for a station for an ocean cable, although he knows well that the British Government would fortify it and keep a garrison in it, and thus "dominate" the whole group of islands. Why does he do this? Alas! The answer to this reveals only too clearly the degeneracy of the times. What reason but one can there be for his conduct? What does Senator Lodge think it is? What does the ancient poet say about the influence of gold on human conduct? What do the British maintain the gold standard for? Need we go further into this painful subject?

WASHINGTON'S PURCHASE OF BRADDOCK'S FIELD.

NEW YORK, February 4, 1895.

IT has hardly attracted the notice of historians that Washington was the owner of "Braddock's Field," though it is mentioned in the schedule attached to his will:

"Great Meadows, 234 [acres], $6 [price per acre], $1,404 [value]. This land is valuable on account of its local situation and other properties. It affords an exceeding good stand on Braddock's Road from Fort Cumberland to Pittsburgh, and besides a fertile soil possesses a large quantity of natural meadow fit for the scythe.—It is distinguished by the appellation of the Great Meadows, where the first action with the French in the year 1754 was fought."

Ford ('Writings of Washington,' ii., p. 288) quotes a sentence from a letter of Capt. William Crawford to Washington, December 6, 1770, which says: "Agreeable to your desire, I have bought the Great Meadows from Mr. Harrison for thirty pistoles, to be paid to Mr. Jacob Hite." (This was Lawrence Harrison, whose son married a daughter of Crawford.) It appears, however, that there was a hitch in the transaction, for on April 15, 1771, Crawford writes to Washington:

"I received yours of March 11th, and am much surprised at Mr. Brooks' behavior in regard to that land. He never had the least claim or pretensions to the Meadows that I ever heard of. Mr. Harrison made use of the name of 'Wm. Brooks,' expecting that Wm. Brooks, *his son-in-law, would do him the favor* to give him an assignment at any time; but, as Mr. Harrison has got a permit, there was no occasion for an assignment, or for an order of survey; for any surveyor would have surveyed the land on the permit and returned it into the office, which would have been accepted, while any order of survey that he could have got would not do. Inclosed you have a bond from Mr. Harrison for settling the matter and making good the title. He says if you want it done, it shall be returned in your own name as soon as the survey is completed. He will settle all disputes in regard to it. There is one William Brooks here who has agreed to sign the bill of sale, which is sufficient; as any man of that name will do as well as he, he having no claim or right any more than any other man of that name. Mr. Harrison says it is all he can do at present. Anything more that is requested he will do if required; and if not, the bargain must be void, and he have his papers again; as he can sell it immediately to several people who will pay no regard to Brooks' claim—looking upon it as worth nothing." (Butterfield's 'Washington and Crawford Letters,' Cincinnati, 1877.)

On December 6, 1771, Washington wrote to Crawford: "As soon as the tract at the Great Meadows is enlarged, I should be glad to have the surveys returned to the office, and to get a plat of it to myself, as I am determined to take out a patent for it immediately."

The original deed of "William Brooks" is now in the collection of Mr. W. F. Havemeyer, New York. The following is a literal copy:

"Know all men by these Presents that I, William Brooks of Fredrick County in Virginia have Bargaind sold and maid over unto Colo George Washington of Fairfax County in Virginia a sartain Tract or Parsel of Land Lying and being in Bedford County in Pensilvania on Braddock's rood, and known by the name of they Great Medows whare Colo Washington had a batle with the french and Enduns in they year one thousand seven Hundred and fifty four and they same which was Located by Law Harrison in the Proprietor of Pensilvania office in the name of Wm. Brooks

for the Consideration of the sum of five shillings to me in hand by Colo George Washington the recpt wherof I do hereby Acknoledge and my self there with fully satisfied and do from me my heirs Executors Admrs and Esigns for Ever worrent and Defind the said Described Tract of Land unto the said Colo George Washington his heirs Executors Admrs and Esigns in Witness Wherof Do hereby set my hand and seal this 7th day of Octobr one thousand seven hundred and seventy-one.

"Test— William Brooks. *Seal.*"
Marcus Stephenson
R Orthington
Jno Stephenson.

The two Stephensons, witnesses, were half-brothers of Crawford. The assignment, so curiously combining good and bad spelling, is in a different handwriting from that of either of the witnesses, or of the signer, William Brooks. At first glance it looks as if Braddock's Field, where Washington built Fort Necessity, and from which he retreated in 1754, had been recaptured by stratagem seventeen years later. As Crawford was a justice of the peace in the county (Bedford) where the land lay, Washington might easily defer to him as to the questionable legality of the transaction. It looks, too, as if Harrison's son-in-law, William Brooks, finding his name used in the original claim (perhaps to escape creditors of Harrison), had resolved to get ahead of his father-in-law by insisting on his (nominal) claim. But the dates must be considered. Between Crawford's letter of April 15 and Washington's letter of December 6 enough time had elapsed, even allowing for the slowness of communication, for the son-in-law to recede from his useless claim. There being no further reference to either Brooks in subsequent correspondence, it may be that the signature is that of the bona-fide Brooks.

There is little doubt that it was partly a purchase of sentiment. Washington had visited the place with his friend Dr. Craik, October 13, 1770, and it may have been then that he lost a silver seal, with his initials in monogram, found there by Daniel Boone Logan in 1842, which was restored to the family, and is now in the State Library at Albany, New York.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE JAPANESE AND THE WAR.

TOKYO, January 12, 1895.

Now that China and Japan seem to be within measurable distance of peace, and to stand on better terms than at any time since the breaking out of hostilities, it is worth while reviewing some of the probable and actual results of the war upon the Japanese. What changes the war may produce upon the ultimate destinies of the East are at present impossible to foretell, but its influence upon the immediate temper of the Japanese people and upon the policy of the Government can be traced in many ways, and this influence must effect a permanent change in the country. Will the war prove a boon or a source of danger to this country, in spite of her victorious armies and navies?

In the first place Japan has scored a point in establishing, if not her sway, at least her methods of government, and, indeed, her civilization, in Corea. The whole programme of reform proposed by Count Inouye for the kingdom has perhaps more radical elements than Corea can learn to digest in a decade. There can be no doubt that the Coreans will benefit immensely if they accept these reforms and have sufficient capacity to carry them out. But it is more than likely that this whole programme, if it meets with success, will react upon the government of Japan. Count Inouye emphasizes the importance of establishing a responsible government in Corea; officials are to be held responsible for income and expenditure, and the heads of the ministries are to be answerable for the proper working of their departments. But it is not difficult to see that the popular parties in Japan will better the instruction, and use the same arguments against the Government in power in order to carry out their cherished scheme of government by party. As soon as Japan has once more quieted down, we may expect to see the old warfare between the Government and the popular parties break out in all its intensity.

Incidentally Japan has gained by the war what she has so long been struggling for, namely, the full recognition of foreign nations. Individually we may deplore the fact that she has gained her point by violence. But it is hardly fair for Western nations to point to Japan as the guilty party in this respect. In the most civilized countries of the West nothing better than war has been discovered to settle ultimately the disputes between nations, and success in the field of arms overrides all other forms of prestige. In the present struggle against China, Japan has obtained her full measure of eulogy, and even of adulation. Not twenty years of effort to promote commerce, industry, education, and justice have given her the standing among Western nations that

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she has gained by the successful prosecution of a six months' campaign. There may be plenty of room for criticism in this state of things, but Japan, borrowing as she does her civilization from the West, can hardly be blamed if she borrows Western methods in their integrity.

The evil results of the war upon the country are not to be overlooked, and yet it is doubtful whether Japan has suffered more in this respect than any other nation would have under like circumstances. First and foremost we notice a tendency to brag and bluster in certain newspapers. One newspaper had it some time ago that Japan was the coming nation of the world, as the nations of Europe and America were already in their dotage. In another newspaper it was remarked that it was fortunate that Japan had attacked China rather than any European nation, as the latter must necessarily have yielded, like China, to the force of Japanese arms. Now and then the most silly and grandiose language is to be found regarding the future of the Japanese people, as though Japan had performed a miraculous feat in bringing China to terms. It is only fair, however, to point out that this is the talk of certain newspapers, presumably edited by very young men, and not the opinion of the more sober portion of the people or of the Government. The latter is fully aware what dangers beset the country, and how necessary it is at this crisis to exercise prudence and foresight.

In regard to the massacre at Port Arthur, little can be said to apologize for the conduct of the Japanese. It is indeed true that the Chinese treated all Japanese prisoners with every refinement of cruelty, and no one can blame the Japanese soldiers for the desire to take revenge upon their enemies on the day of the battle. But it is almost beyond dispute that the massacre was prolonged long after the feelings of the soldiers had cooled down and after Port Arthur was completely in the power of the Japanese. It is stated as an "open secret" that the massacre was perpetrated by the order of a particular general, whose name is given (Yamaji). Yet so far not a word has appeared in the Japanese press either in condemnation of or regret for the action. The great majority of the newspapers have adopted a defiant, we-are-no-worse-than-you tone, and have raked up passages in the annals of Western countries to show parallel instances. Other newspapers have still worse methods of defence. Says the *Jiyu* (*Radical*): "The Chinese refugees could easily procure garments to throw over their uniforms, thus instantly and easily transforming themselves into seemingly peaceful citizens. *Under these circumstances wholesale slaughter was necessarily the order of the day.*" The *Nichi-Nichi* (*Daily News*) ridicules the foreigners who find fault with the Japanese on this point. It calls them "mere imitators of Herbert Spencer, who lost his head in amazement at the immense number of killed and wounded in Napoleon's battles, and madly declaimed against the great European conqueror. War is by nature cruel. Circumstances must determine the number of lives lost." All this is rather melancholy reading in the light of the claims made by the Japanese previous to the attack on Port Arthur. Never were more definite orders issued not to injure the innocent or kill prisoners than those emanating from Marshal Oyama, who was in command. The massacre was perpetrated in the face of these orders, yet we find no one held answerable for disobedience, or a single sentence of disapproval in the press. If a guess could be hazarded at the real difficulty, it would be that the general responsible for the atrocity had acquired such popularity by his courage in various actions that his superior in command feared to stop him or censure him. The weakness of the present Government, too, is probably much greater than is suspected, and its only hope of success lies in following public sentiment as closely as possible.

The last point of importance is whether the present Government will conclude a peace on terms sufficiently generous to induce China to accept them. It is a vital point, not only to China, but to Japan herself, that the treaty should be concluded as soon as possible. I have already referred to the fact that the present Government of Japan has no political support whatever, but derives all its momentary strength from the circumstance that its war policy squares with the overwhelming sentiment of the country. There is still much bitter opposition to the Government, arising partly from the popular parties and partly from the extreme Satcho element, or, as it is commonly called, the military party. These two divisions represent the extreme tendencies in Japan to-day; and Count Ito's Government, which represents a conservative constitutionalism, is endeavoring to steer safely between the two extremes. The popular parties, however, who have no power in the Government outside of Parliament, where they are dominant, wish to establish party government at once, and are bitterly hostile to both Count Ito and the military party. The latter dominates the army and navy, and has but little regard for either the Constitution or the Parliament. Thus it becomes plain that if Count Ito makes a treaty that is not extremely favorable, he is sure to offend the military party, which then will probably succeed in overthrowing him, and ride to power on the tide of their recent military successes. On the contrary, should Count Ito not succeed in establishing peace, his position will gradually grow worse, as the military party will gain such power through the prolongation of the war that it can snap its fingers at his authority. Thus, whatever happens, whether peace is established or whether war continues, the present Government is but little likely to derive any advantage from either. Certainly Count Ito has won not a grain of gratitude from the country thus far through the war with China. All the gratitude has been lavished on the soldiers and individual leaders that have in some way distinguished themselves by courage or achievement.

From the point of view of Japan's general welfare it is of the greatest moment that peace should come quickly. At present Count Ito still commands the situation, and whatever he strongly and definitely recommends to the Emperor he can carry out. But let the war continue only six months longer, let the military party get control while war is still in progress, and it is hardly possible to foretell the consequences to Japan and to the entire East. All the European powers interested in the East might be drawn into the struggle, and then Count Ito would no longer have the restraining power which he now exercises. It is fortunate for Japan that she has so prudent a statesman at the helm. There can be no question of his sincere desire to put an end to the struggle as soon as possible. He sees the danger, to both himself and his country, of any further prolongation of the conflict; and while he will derive no particular credit from his successful conduct of the war, and may even become unpopular as soon as he concludes a treaty, yet any other course is fraught with even greater danger.

From these general outlines it will be seen that the war has not proved an unmixed blessing to Japan. Yet on the whole the benefits will probably outstrip the evils, and even to China the war may be a blessing in disguise. The utter corruption of the official class in China has been at last brought to light by her successive defeats as could have been possible in no other way. Like France under the Second Empire, China has been long suffering from internal dry-rot. It was the opinion, I believe, of Secretary Seward that "war is national discipline"; and if the present struggle should prove a goad to drive China out of her long lethargy, it would be an unexpected benefit not only to herself, but to the entire East.

G. D.

Correspondence.

A CLINCHER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Cleveland's last letter seems to me one of the finest things done by any President since Abraham Lincoln. In a quiet and dignified manner he informs Congress that he has negotiated a loan on the basis of three and three-quarters per cent. interest, but that he has reserved the right to substitute a three per cent. bond at par, provided Congress will make it payable expressly in *gold* coin, and that the difference saved to the Treasury thereby, to the maturity of the bond, would be upwards of sixteen millions of dollars.

Of course there is not the slightest prospect that Congress will do anything of the sort. That is clear enough from the voting on the 8th, when, in the words of a correspondent, "the propositions of Republicans, Democrats, and Populists, of gold-men, silver-men, and greenback-men, all went down in the general *débâcle*." Yet it does not follow that the President is a greater man even than the average Congressman. It merely means that he is one man, representing the nation and feeling his responsibility, while the House of Representatives consists of 356 men, representing 356 equal fractions of the nation, and feeling no responsibility to anybody except the private and party interests which have placed them where they are.

A confidential financial agent of the President taking a part, which from his position must have been a leading one, in the debate on Friday would have served as what in chemistry is called a "precipitate." One thing is certain, that till some such step is taken, Congress will never do anything of any kind for good.

G. B.

Boston, February 9, 1895.

FORTUNES IN LAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial article in your issue of January 10, entitled "The Use of Great Fortunes," occurs this paragraph:

"But no income can come from large fortunes except through investment in some enterprise useful to the public, as is proved by the profits or interest; and the owner is apt to be a man skilful in finding out what the public wants, and therefore a good man to have control of large sums of money."

This remark, on the public advantage of frequent concentration of wealth in the hands of eminently successful men, is directed against a very prevalent and very important fallacy,

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and it might, perhaps, have been given greater development, to the profit of many readers; but the form in which it appears, perhaps on account of the small space given to it, seems chargeable with error arising from the omission of a needed qualification.

In the interest of sound discussion, I would suggest that a very large exception to the general benefit arising from profitable investment of private fortunes is exhibited in the buying and holding of land. Leaving out all operations whereby bodies of real estate are brought to a better market by active enterprise, working through costly improvements, schemes of colonization or otherwise, we have still an enormous body of investment in which the money invested performs no public service, in which the investor's ability is exercised only in forecasting the probabilities of a rise in prices to which he does not propose to contribute. Only a reminder is needed of the great share which this sort of profit holds in the yearly increase of private fortunes in this country, and of the important modification hereby imposed on our view of the public beneficence of large private gains. It may be remarked, further, that this sort of investment is particularly hurtful through its direct interference with those active investments whose profits do indicate general advantage.

The answer to an inquiry about the source of a large fortune is apt to fall into two clauses. The first describes the useful activities by which ability first achieved success. The second gives the familiar explanation: "Then he invested in real estate." And too often the first success, earned by sound business service of the public, bears but a fractional ratio to the later gains, which have come from shrewdness so used as to benefit only the investor. And by the facility of the latter sort of profit a very great share of the most valuable business ability is diverted from useful activity, and so lost to the public.

The considerations here barely suggested must furnish a heavy item to the debit side of the account, when we undertake to sum up the beneficence of the present conditions of money-getting, and it seems to me important that advantages should be reckoned as nearly as possible at their real value, and drawbacks clearly acknowledged. E. S. THACHER.

NORDHOFF, CALIFORNIA, January 30, 1895.

[Interference with the use of land for business purposes is the only serious objection we see to the holding of large bodies of land for a rise. If it prevents better cultivation, or the erection of dwellings for producers, or of buildings for purposes of exchange or production, it is injurious. But how much of this is there? Very little, we are sure. As a rule, land enriches only the heirs of the original purchasers after having been held for long periods, and is sold for a price which does not cover interest, taxes, and assessments. Vastly more people in America are poor through holding land than rich through having held it. How capital is lost to the community through holding land for a rise, unless somebody wants it for productive purposes, we fail to see. And if anybody wants it for such purposes very badly, he almost always gets it, and the vendor is sure to put the money received for it into some profitable investment.—ED. NATION.]

WILLIAM AND MARY SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit a correction of Mr. Charles Forster Smith's letter on the subject of the "Influence of College-Bred Men," published in the *Nation* of January 31, 1895? He assigns to William and Mary College only three signers of the Declaration of Independence, viz., Thomas Jefferson, Carter Braxton, and George Wythe; whereas the college catalogue and Sanderson's *Lives of the Signers* call for five—Thomas Jefferson, Thomas Nelson, Benjamin Harrison, Carter Braxton, and George Wythe. But, in addition to this, William and Mary furnished the draughtsman of the paper, Thomas Jefferson, who surely was of more consequence than the large majority of the other signers.

It would seem from Mr. Smith's letter that William and Mary stood second or even third in the list of colleges affording a text for emphasizing the influence of college-bred men upon the origin of the Union. But she gave Peyton Randolph, first president of the Continental Congress; Thomas Jefferson, the draughtsman of the Declaration; Edmund Randolph, who proposed the first scheme of government for the Federal Convention in 1787; and John Tyler, who carried through the Virginia Legislature the first proposition calling the Annapolis Convention—the immediate predecessor of the celebrated convention at Philadelphia in 1787. One blast of Roderick Dhu's bugle-horn was "worth a thousand men"; and mere numbers can give no idea of the influence of a college.

Mr. Smith bases his deductions upon 'Appletons' Cyclopædia,' which does not mention that Nelson and Harrison were at William and Mary College. This was probably an oversight in the compilers of that work, but it may be said that the biographies of most Southern men in 'Appletons'' are open to objection. It may be also said, with truth, that thousands are omitted who are entitled to representation on the basis of the work. I do not blame the publishers for this, as their work is published in the North, and it was much easier for them to secure information of Northern men. Northern men of fourth or fifth-rate standing are noticed in 'Appletons',' while the South is fortunate to get representation as low as a third-rate person. I am sure there was nothing *intentional* in this.

I am truly yours, LYON G. TYLER.

WILLIAMSBURG, VA., February 6, 1895.

Notes.

ADDITIONAL announcements from Macmillan & Co. are 'The Paintings of Venice,' by Karl Károly; 'The Politics of Aristotle,' a revised text, with commentary, by Prof. Franz Susemihl and R. D. Hicks; Philo's 'About the Contemplative Life,' a critical edition by F. C. Conybeare; 'Summer Studies of Birds and Books,' by William Warde Fowler; 'Structure and Life of Birds,' by F. W. Headley; and the entire series of "English Men of Letters," to be reissued in thirteen monthly volumes, containing each three lives.

Allyn & Bacon, Boston, have in press a new Latin Grammar, by Prof. Charles E. Bennett of Cornell University.

'Prose Dictation Exercises from the English Classics,' by James H. Penniman, is to be issued by D. C. Heath & Co.

Hunt & Eaton have nearly ready 'The Literature of Theology,' by Bishop J. F. Hurst.

Fleming H. Revell Co. will publish next week 'Municipal Reform Movements,' by Wm. Howe Tolman, secretary of the City Vigilance League, New York.

As each successive volume reaches us of Mr. Larned's most painstaking compilation, 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading' (Springfield, Mass.: Nichols), we are increasingly impressed with a sense of its usefulness not only to journalists and the frequenters of public libraries, but also, on occasion, to more serious students. The fourth volume, for instance (Nicæa to Tunis), which has just appeared, calls for commendation for the original documents which it contains; under "Papacy," the Encyclical and Syllabus of 1864, the Constitution of 1870 promulgating the dogma of infallibility, and the Italian law of the papal guarantees; under "Scotland," the Covenant of 1638. The work is certainly a good piece of book-making, very systematically and thoroughly done. Still, readers must not take too literally the promise on the title-page of "a complete system of history" "from the *best* historians, biographers, and specialists," "representing the *better* and newer literature." A large part of the contents is, perhaps of necessity, taken from second-rate books, which have the merit, for the editor, of getting over the ground rapidly.

In John G. Alger's 'Glimpses of the French Revolution' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) there are many scraps of information about particular episodes of the Revolution, which may serve to correct earlier writers on certain points of detail and to furnish diverting anecdotes for moments of leisure. The most interesting pages are those which describe the fate of various Englishmen to whose part in the Revolution Mr. Alger has devoted a previous work. For the serious student the book can have merely the value which comes from its hints upon minor questions, since the writer's statements of the results of his special researches are not substantiated by either foot-notes or references. Moreover, it exhibits a strange carelessness here and there, especially in the use of names. For example, "*Dannou*" is printed for Daunou, "Dussieux" for Dusaulx, "Dutart" for Dutard; and, still worse, "Dumouriez" for Lafayette, "Constituent" for Legislative Assembly. Basire is spoken of as a member of the Committee of Public Safety, and perhaps Moïse Bayle also, unless Committee of Public Safety is printed where the author intended Committee of General Security, which in one place he calls Committee of General Safety.

Few books have as curious a history as the Memoirs of La Révellière-Lépeaux, the Girondin statesman and Director, which have just been published in Paris. His family, like those of other prominent Revolutionary leaders, do not seem to have looked back with satisfaction upon his part in the struggle. Indeed, it has been observed that the men of the second and third generations in these families have been more frequently found on the Right than on the Left of French legislative assemblies. But La Révellière-Lépeaux left strict orders that his Memoirs should be printed, and authorized his son only to revise their form if he believed this to be necessary. The son scrupulously obeyed the letter of the parental decree, even refusing to alter in any respect the manuscript, and then locked up the whole edition. In 1879 it was said to be in a cellar at Angers. The manuscript, however, had been used by Thiers about 1827, when he was writing upon

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the Directory, and by Lamartine in his 'History of the Girondins.' As soon as it was printed a copy was, in accordance with French law, deposited at the National Library, which made the Memoirs accessible to other investigators. In 1879 Jean Destrem printed in the *Revue Historique* copious extracts, especially about the Directory, which is the chief subject of the Memoirs.

A new attempt to explain some of the curious objects sculptured on the Assyrian monuments has been made by Dr. E. Bonamia, and the results of his investigations appear in 'The Flora of the Assyrian Monuments and its Outcomes' (Westminster: A. Constable & Co.). He gives drawings from the ancient slabs, on which he finds representations of the date-tree, the vine, the pomegranate, the fig, the banana, the melon, the pine tree, the reed, the lily, some daisy-like plant, and the baobab. Some of these identifications are old. Layard figured pomegranates and reeds, and spoke unhesitatingly of dates, apples, and bunches of grapes. The cone like object so often seen in the hands of attendants is still a mystery. Layard wrote, of one such object, that he "would not hesitate to identify it with the pineapple unless there were every reason to believe that the Assyrians were unacquainted with that fruit. The leaves sprouting from the top proved that it was not the cone of a pine-tree or fir." The pineapple theory cannot stand, for the highest authority (De Candolle) has decided that the plant is American. Dr. Bonamia reviews several theories, and then advances his own, that the cones were cedar-cones used as sprinklers for holy water. The later chapters of the book contain, among other things, a very ingenious theory of the evolution of the fleur-de-lis of architecture and heraldry. The symbol is not the flower of an iris at all; it is a pair of horns tied to a date-tree to keep off evil spirits—"luck-horns" the writer calls them. He argues very fairly that the cross-band or ligature of the accepted emblem represents nothing in the iris-blossom, while it is easily explicable as the fillet by which the horns were attached to the tree.

Neither the "literature" nor the "art" of the fourth number of the *Yellow Book* shows much change from No. 3. Mr. Aubrey Beardsley's mannikins are even longer drawn out as to body and more ophidian as to head than usual, and Mr. Sickert and Mr. Steer are even uncommonly uninteresting. Unless Mr. George Moore really looks like Mr. Sickert's portrait of him, he should have good cause of libel. Perhaps it would be better for the reputation of the contributors with the world at large if they altogether left off doing portraits of each other.

Since Poor Richard, Americans cannot be said to have shown a genius for almanac-making; for novelties and successes in that line we must still look abroad. One of the latest candidates for favor is the *Almanach Hachette*, "petite encyclopédie populaire de la vie pratique," now in its second year. This is in its way a real addition to handy books of reference, whether one wishes the Republican Calendar brought down to date, or would recall the relative proportion of European armaments (here graphically shown also by figures of infantry and cavalry drawn to scale according to the ratios of the respective nations), the words and music of the Delphian Hymn to Apollo, Guénon's mode of choosing a cow by the escutcheon, French systems of stenography, etc., etc. A section exhibiting railroad routes and fares from Paris to the neighboring large cities is but one of many which make this almanac recommendable to every tourist in France. The telephone system is mapped, and of maps, plans, and illustrations there are more than we can enumerate. Portraits of the distinguished dead and of living monarchs and other rulers are further portions of the feast for 1895. The typography is clear and handsome. Those who complain of the fine letter pay the *Almanach* a compliment, says the editor; they would fain make of it a reading-book! The edition we have been describing is the smaller of two.

We are tardy in recording the birth of a new supernaturalist monthly — the *Metaphysical Magazine*, "devoted to Occult, Philosophic, and Scientific Research," issued by the Metaphysical Publishing Company, No. 503 Fifth Avenue, New York. In the first article in the January number, Dr. Elliott Coues propounds, to account for the movements without human contact of his own sitting-room table, and other similar phenomena, "a telekinetic theory of levitation," as he calls it. This "theory" simply asserts that there is a force of levitation or repulsion between bodies, which is the converse of the force of gravitation or attraction, but which, unlike the latter, requires for its conveyance some "imponderable medium connected with mental activities." The other articles in the number are of the optimistic, pantheistic type; those by Dr. A. Wilder defending reincarnation, by W. J. Colville on "Mental Healing," by Mrs. A. M. Diaz on "Teaching Religion to Children," and by Mrs. Le Plongeon on "Occultism among the Mayas," being the most noteworthy. On the whole, one notes with pleasure the way in which what one may call extra-academic philosophy and extra-ecclesiastic religion gradually put on less and less eccentric forms. This magazine promises to be a great improvement in this way on its predecessors.

Mr. William S. Baker returns to his useful diary of Washington's movements in the January number of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*. He now follows the General and President day by day after the Revolution to the close of his life. This tracing, coupled with Mr. Baker's 'Itinerary' for the Revolution, will constitute a great service to history worthily rendered. A fine photogravure after Stuart's head of Washington in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is a frontispiece to this number of the magazine.

A Virginia witch turns up in the January issue of the *William and Mary College Quarterly*. Mr. Edward R. James prints the documents leading up to and in connection with the "Suite for Suspition of witchcraft brought by Luke Hill ag^{t} Grace Sherwood." This widow of James Sherwood had already brought action against "Hill & Uxor" for assault by Mrs. Hill. She was now ordered "to be Searched according to y^{e} compl^{t} by a Jury of women to decide y^{e} s^{d} Differr"—that is, for witch-marks—and the jury reported that they had "found Two things like titts wth Severall other Spotts." But just here the tale breaks off, to be continued.

M. Charles Barneaud begins, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for January 15 (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.), a long article on "Jefferson and Education in Virginia," in the course of which he affirms that, as he writes, "there is no *haut enseignement* in the country of Jefferson and Washington [he means the United States, not Virginia]. . . . There is nothing that even approaches the conception of our Collège de France." M. Barneaud has, of course, availed himself of Dr. Herbert B. Adams's brochure on 'Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia,' in the United States Bureau of Education's series of "Contributions to American Educational History." We have, by the way, to record several additions to this series, relating the history of education in Rhode Island (by Wm. Howe Tolman), Connecticut (by Bernard C. Steiner), Delaware (by Lyman P. Powell), Tennessee (by Lucius Salisbury Merriam), and Iowa (by Prof. Leonard F. Parker). They are all more or less provided with illustrations, chiefly views; and in the Iowa monograph is given a facsimile of President Grant's address at Des Moines in 1875, from which it appears that his views on State popular education were completely perverted in the newspaper reports of the day.

The editors of the *Zeitschrift für die gesamte Strafrechtswissenschaft*, in furtherance of the efforts made by that periodical to promote uniformity in criminal legislation, are publishing a "Sammlung Ausserdeutscher Strafgesetzbücher in Deutscher Uebersetzung," intended to supply low-priced text translations of the criminal laws of the world. The last number issued contains the penal code of Mexico: 'Das Mexikanische Strafgesetzbuch vom 7. Dezember, 1871' (Berlin: J. Guttentag, 1894). The anonymous translation is from the hand of Mr. Ernest Eisenmann, a German lawyer living in Paris, whose practical knowledge of Mexican jurisprudence one could wish had been drawn upon for annotations. The previous seven numbers of this useful series have brought to the aid of German students the penal codes of Holland, Italy, and Finland; the laws of Denmark, and of Sweden governing military punishments; the Norwegian legislation concerning jury trials, and the chapter of the laws of New York for 1881 relating to crimes.

The *Monthly Weather Review* for October last, just issued, contains a unique record of a tornado that passed over an observer's station in Little Rock, Ark., at 8:28 P. M. October 2, 1894. It cut off the upper story of an adjacent building and threw it on the observer's office, but fortunately the self-recording barometer was not injured, and its tracing shows a sudden fall and rise of pressure amounting to 0.38 inch at the time of the tornado's passage. No such record as this has ever before been made. As the tornado went on to the northeast, it passed over the city gas-works, and at once all the gas-lights in the city went out. Prof. Abbe, editor of the *Review*, points out that the record of rapid fall and rise of pressure on the barograph may be due to the action of a strong wind on the building, first somewhat exhausting the air by suction through the chimney, and then raising the pressure by bursting in the windows; if so, the record might not indicate the low pressure believed to exist in the centre of the tornado-whirl.

Prof. G. Hellmann of Berlin has undertaken, with the aid of the German Meteorological Society, to reprint, sometimes in facsimile, a number of old and rare meteorological works of special interest (Berlin: Asher & Co.). The numbers already issued are Reynman's 'Wetterbuechlein,' printed originally in 1510; Pascal's 'Récit de la grande expérience de l'équilibre des liqueurs,' 1648; Howard's 'On the Modifications of Clouds,' 1803. Each number is accompanied by an introduction by Hellmann. These curious reprints may be obtained at publisher's prices in this country from A. Lawrence Rotch, Blue Hill Observatory, Readville, Mass.

Prof. E. Reyer of Vienna has for several years been conducting a series of geological experiments, illustrating fractures, folds, erup-

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tions, and so on, and some accounts of his results have been published. He now issues an explanation of his methods and apparatus, which must prove of much service to college teachers in geology and physical geography. He describes his experiments as inexpensive and simple. His essay is entitled 'Geologische und Geographische Experimente' (Leipzig: Engelmann).

The Icelandic geologist Th. Thorodssen, who was created an honorary doctor of philosophy last summer by the University of Copenhagen, has concluded his investigations of Iceland for this year. These studies, which were begun in 1880, will be completed in three years, when for the first time full and exact data concerning the geology of Iceland will be accessible. The results already obtained serve to correct many false impressions and to present facts hitherto undreamed of. The principal subject of inquiry was the Vatnajökul, the largest field of ice in Europe, which has now been investigated in all its parts. The territory adjoining the eastern corner of Vatnajökul, which has hitherto been practically unexplored, was found to contain a number of lakes, and several other changes on the map will have to be made. On the east coast forty-six new deposits of liparites and granophyres were discovered, and near Lón a previously unknown mass of gabbro of considerable extent. Dr. Thorodssen's investigations are confined to the summer months, partly on account of his engagement during the rest of the year as teacher at the Latin school in Reykjavik, partly by reason of climatic conditions.

Sun and Shade for January (N. Y. Photogravure Co.) is noticeable for the beginning of specimens of the company's chrome gelatine process. The number is given up to reproductions of Dutch paintings, and the first (a Holy Family by Van der Weyden) is in color.

Not altogether unknown to the public, yet not certainly procurable, have been photographic copies of a very remarkable daguerreotype of Daniel Webster, which, following the mode of designation of works by the old masters, we should denominate "Webster with the stove-pipe hat," though the high stock and the blue coat and brass buttons are also a part of the costume. The eyes are the great feature, and the weight of the whole face is eminently Websterian. The original is now owned by Mr. F. De B. Richards, also the possessor of an equally characteristic daguerreotype of Clay, whose oratorical mouth is more the man than the eyes. Mr. Richards has permitted Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, to make enlarged phototypes of both in permanent ink, and they take rank among the most desirable nature-likenesses of these eminent men.

—President Eliot's annual report opens with those Harvard obituaries which are models of pithy and apt characterization. His anticipatory obituary of football we have already cited; but both his moral and his physical objections would be much mitigated if the game were confined to Harvard men on their own grounds. Cheating and slugging and intentional disabling would disappear like magic. But we have yet to enlist President Eliot's support of the abolition of intercollegiate athletic contests —the true seat of the evils. Dean Briggs, by the way, reports that "last year the monstrous methods of training and coaching for football rendered the low academic records of our football-players less blameworthy than pitiable." Is there, or is there not, a relation between overblown athletics and the fact that gifts and bequests to Harvard are in disregard of the crying need of the library for a brand-new commodious building? Matters have now reached such a pass that President Eliot can only bespeak a general contribution on the part of the alumni. This is surely a paradoxical situation. Perhaps a more taking opening for princely endowment is in the direction of new affiliated colleges for men, united to the university by the same tie which now binds Radcliffe College. President Eliot is prepared to welcome such foundations, and apparently he is of one mind with Prof. Peirce in regard to the happy strengthening of the Graduate School by the admission of Radcliffe College graduates to it *on the same footing as men, even to a (logical)* claim on the special degree of Ph.D. He looks hopefully on the diminishing ratio of College to University students, as surrounding the former with "a large body of mature and earnest students who have a serious purpose in view," and whose influence will tend to eliminate from the College "inconsistent survivals," "trivialities and crudities," such as hazing, pure and simple or in that disguised form called society initiation (*alias* "running") which, Dean Briggs tells us, makes it "often almost impossible for a newly elected member" to study while it is going on, so protracted is it, and in such "selfish disregard of the novice's welfare."

—When, some two years ago, the first volume of Mr. Russell M. Garnier's 'History of the English Landed Interest' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) was noticed in these columns, it was necessary to point out the incompetence of the author for the task he had undertaken. Some of his readers expected that when he came down to more recent centuries, his practical experience as a land agent would make itself apparent, and would cast into the background his defects as a scholar. These hopes have hardly been realized by the second volume, devoted to the "Modern Period," which has since appeared. Scattered here and there, indeed, there are passages where we hear the voice of the man of agricultural affairs, accustomed to look at the rural situation from the landlord's point of view, but with a kindly tolerance for the rest of mankind. Moreover, Mr. Russell has turned over a great deal of the agricultural literature of the last three centuries, and he renders a useful account of several little-known pamphlets—although we are surprised to see how small a space he gives to William Marshall, the indefatigable critic of Arthur Young. But when, seduced by the interest of passages here and there, we set about reading a chapter right through, we soon become too much annoyed with the author's desultoriness and inconclusiveness to give him credit even for his industry. Those who know a good deal about the subject already will be able to pick out some excellent bits, but it would be folly to turn to a book like this rather than to the treatises we already possess from Caird, Léonce de Lavergne, and Prothero.

—In 1887 a work appeared from the pen of the Rev. H. W. Clarke entitled, 'The History of Tithes from Abraham to Queen Victoria.' This was rewritten, and was published as a new work in 1891, under the title 'A History of Tithes,' of which a second edition or reprint has recently appeared (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners). The book states clearly most of the disputed questions in connection with the history of tithes, and is a good repertory of the views of leading writers on the whole subject, from Selden to Lord Selborne. Our author's tone is very categorical and polemical, and he pretends to considerable originality; but, with all his ostentatious parade of learning, he leans less frequently upon the original sources than upon Selden, Kemble, Stubbs, and other modern authorities. He cites Ingulph without any intimation that the latter's chronicle is a worthless fabrication. He defines folcland as the national property, or the property of the community, ignoring Vinogradoff's recent demonstration that folcland is simply family land, held by folk-right, or what most writers call etbel. He frequently speaks of Charlemagne's kingdom of "France." The proof-reading of the book and the arrangement of material leave much to be desired. There are some surprisingly abrupt transitions to new subjects; for example, in chapter ix. the author suddenly branches off into a general account of the monks, without showing the connection of this topic with what precedes or follows it. His computation of the population of England at various periods before 1066, in the same chapter, is equally perplexing. Most of his general conclusions are, however, correct, and he exhibits much industry in the collection of facts; hence, with all its defects, the book will be found useful.

—We have a new and elaborate study of the vexed question of the Cabot landfall, in 'The Voyages of the Cabots,' by Dr. Dawson, the Queen's printer of Ottawa, a brochure reprinted from the current Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada. Off the headland known as Cape Breton is a small and barren island called Scatari. This, in Dr. Dawson's opinion, is the island of St. John which John Cabot found contiguous to his landfall, and the neighboring headland is the "prima tierra vista." It has been generally held by those who accept the evidence of the Cabot mappemonde that Cape North, at the extreme upper end of Cape Breton, was the landfall, because the legend above quoted seemed to be attached in the map to that particular point; and this with such scholars has made Prince Edward Island the St. John of Cabot. Dr. Dawson's view is that the legend refers to the island of Cape Breton and not to any particular headland of it, and that the southeastern cape and Scatari Island best answer the description. Cape Breton, in his judgment, would be the natural landfall of a vessel which had cleared Cape Race, and which steered westward by compass, in ignorance of the magnetic variation then existing. He contends, further, that the existing cartography of the region previous to Champlain made no account of Prince Edward Island, but did represent Cabot's St. John as lying seaward and not in the gulf. Dr. Dawson examines a large number of maps to prove this, beginning with La Cosa. He regrets not having seen the Santa Cruz map of 1542 preserved at Stockholm. He would have found that also to make a part of the evidence as he arranges it. He seems not to consider that Scatari Island is of insignificant size, compared with the prominent character which this seaward island assumes in the early maps. It is constant in position no otherwise than in being always towards the open sea.

—The Chino-Japanese war has been the fertile cause of a new bloom in the periodical literature of Japan. The semi-monthly mail brings us a bundle of brilliantly covered and illustrated magazines, handy manuals of history, and gayly colored and white-and-black broadside pictures of men, scenery, architecture,

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and events in Korea and China. Besides several periodicals especially devoted to the war, there has appeared in Tokyo a magazine as large and handsome as either the *Century* or *Harper's*, though the illustrations come out of the acid bath instead of from the block of the wood-engraver. The *Sun*, of which Vol. I., No. 1, is before us, is a monthly review of politics, economics, science, literature, and art, of 200 pages, of which twelve are in English. In the list of its contributors shine stars of first magnitude in the world of Japanese letters. Its divisions are biography and history, geology, politics, law, literature, fiction, fine arts, economics, miscellaneous, etc. Among the contributions are three on "The Influence of the War" upon education, upon science, and upon literature. Another competent writer treats of the advantages and disadvantages of Chinese Ideographs Another discusses future policy toward China. Out of the sixteen signed articles by men who occupy the first grades of ability in their specialties, the most remarkable piece is that by Prof. Kumé, who recently incurred the displeasure of the Government by the application of the higher criticism to the Japanese sacred documents. He writes of "a great revolution in the world of letters," and it is hard to say which should be most admired, his logic, rhetoric, almost entirely new method of using the Japanese language, or his argument.

—Briefly stated, the latter is as follows: China was once to the world of Eastern Asia what Rome was to the Western World. Now that this great world has, in the eyes of the Japanese, fallen, even Japanese boys despise China, and the doctrines of Confucius are contemned and rejected by all. Yet at such a time as this there is great danger of going too far in such contempt, for, as Prof. Kumé argues, the truth is not destroyed when the country in which it grew is ruined. Christianity survived the fall of Jerusalem; Buddhism lived when the followers of Gautama were driven from India; Rome, though dead, persists in European jurisprudence and civilization. What lingering respect for China the Japanese had has been destroyed by recent military prowess. Hence the Japanese people are now apt to think that they are pure, humane, and fully civilized, as China never was; but this idea is pure conceit and must be purged out. One has only to compare Old Japan with New Japan to see that in reality Japanese power is a borrowed one, and that "we beat China because we adopted Western civilization." China, on the contrary, refused to improve or reform; the Chinese had no division of labor in intellectual matters, they mixed things prehistoric and fossilized in hopeless confusion with things modern, and they kept in the old ruts, making political procedure also to depend on privilege and bribery rather than on justice and right for all. On the contrary, the Japanese intelligently borrowed and applied Western forces and methods. What is necessary now is that Japanese educated men should study the secrets of the real difference between the modern Chinese and Japanese, and the cause of success, in order to learn wisdom and permanently profit by it, rather than to fill themselves with conceit by thoughtless boasting. The article is profoundly philosophical and thoroughly appreciative of the real facts, and is a hopeful sign that Japan will be wise in the use of her present power. The general tone and outlook of the article show that, by entering upon this war, Japan has irrevocably committed herself to progress.

—The medical faculty of the University of Paris opened its doors to women in 1868, but at first only a very few availed themselves of the privileges thus offered. In 1878 the number in attendance was 32; during the next ten years (1878–'88) it increased to 114, and is at present 183, of whom the great majority (167) are Russians. The remainder are Poles, Rumanians, Servians, Greeks, and Scotch, and only one German, who also bears a Scotch name—Gertrude Gordon—and to whom we are indebted for our information. Many of them, chiefly Russians, have been through the gymnasium; others have acquired a more or less thorough knowledge of literature, history, the natural sciences, and philology in such secondary schools as were accessible to them. As foreigners they must all be examined in Latin and Greek before admission, and be able to translate passages from the easier classical writers, Cæsar and Xenophon, at sight, and to analyze them grammatically. The courses of study are pursued conjointly with the young men, and this association, so far from producing a demoralizing effect, tends to elevate and refine both sexes. Miss Gordon declares that during an experience of three years in the clinique, the auditory, and the dissecting-room she has never observed that the presence of young ladies occasioned the slightest improper word or act on the part of their male colleagues. Most of the women who practise medicine in Paris are married. "Model wives and happy mothers, they nevertheless find time to devote to their profession." The professors and directors of the hospitals praise the conscientiousness and diligence of the women, and acknowledge them to be, both in general intelligence and in special knowledge, fully equal to the men. The latter also admit the truth of this statement, and assert that they ought to be even superior in these respects, since they are not compelled to waste their time in cafés and cabarets. It is still difficult for some of the older members of the faculty to reconcile themselves to the new state of things; and on one occasion, during an examination for a degree, the late Prof. Charcot exclaimed: "Mademoiselle, you are young and beautiful. Why did you not prefer to marry?" The candidate blushed, but declined to answer the question as irrelevant.

THIERS REDIVIVUS.—II.

History of the Consulate and the Empire of France under Napoleon. By L. A. Thiers. 12 vols. London: Chatto & Windus; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

History of the French Revolution. By L. A. Thiers. 5 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

THIERS the historian of the Revolution stood in the way of Thiers the historian of the Consulate and the Empire. In a speech delivered at Mâcon, Lamartine called the latter period "the counter-revolution of Glory." To champion at the same time the Revolution and the counter-revolution, without laying one's self open to the charge of inconsistency, is, however, somewhat difficult. "I am conscious of loving liberty and the glory of France as much as I did before." With this sentence Thiers bridged over the chasm between his two works. He had not himself, in fact, renounced his allegiance to the principles and ideas of the Revolution, nor did he want the people to do so. Very far from it. Still, the 'History of the Consulate and the Empire' was conceived as a political manifesto, which, while not intended to supplant that of his previous work, should be coupled with it. The ideas of the Revolution and the revolutionary policy of the heir of the Revolution were to be linked together, not to say joined in indissoluble wedlock. As "minister of the 1st of March" (1840), Thiers had put his shoulder with a will to the wheels of the chariot of "glory," which, with the exception of the little airing of Angoulême's easy victory over the Spanish Revolution, the campaigns in Algeria, and the battle of Navarino, had been allowed to rust. He had succeeded in getting up such an excitement that for a moment Europe was believed to be on the eve of a great war. Happily, Louis Philippe preferred safety to uncertain glory. The minister whose hobby it was to make Paris the strongest fortress in the realm, and whose night's rest was disturbed by dreams of the "natural" boundaries of France, had to go. Then it was that he set to instilling into the minds of the people as historian what he had preached as minister from the tribune of the Legislative Chamber. His success was great—much greater than he desired, as the future was to prove. His fellow-bourgeois had fought shy of engaging in military ventures, principally because these were too apt to affect their tills injuriously. But what harm could there be in reading of the wondrous deeds of the past? They had all been a reality so short a time ago that tens of thousands were still alive who had lived through all of them. To read of them involved no risk, and yet was eminently gratifying to the national egotism; for had it not the right to assume that the nation needed but the will to have a part at least of the miracles wrought by the fathers repeated by the sons? Well, every café in France could furnish every day in the year an object-lesson proving this reasoning to be dangerously fallacious. The habitual sipping of absinthe is not harmless, though one addicted to it will seldom, if ever, exhibit the grosser symptoms of intoxication. Physicians have declared that the alcoholism it is capable of producing is of a most malignant type, as being especially hard to cure. The 'History of the Consulate and the Empire' was a systematic effort to work the nation, in a similar manner, into a similar kind of moral alcoholism.

Still, if a poisonous drug, it contained also its own antidote—provided full credence can be given to Thiers as a witness testifying in his own behalf. We are assured in the preface mentioned in the first article, that he is animated by an irrepressible passion for uncompromising truth. Time is no object with him; no pains or trouble does he shun to get at the truth; he experiences "a kind of shame at the mere idea of stating an inaccurate fact." Fortunately, he never has occasion to blush for shame, for he has "seized and reproduced that absolute truth of facts themselves" revealed by authentic sources. If so, his philosophizing about the facts, however deceptive and insidious, could do no serious harm. But there is more than one way of being untruthful. A hundred ways are open to the historian to falsify the truth without uttering a single lie, and with some of these Thiers was very familiar—for instance, that of simply leaving untold what did not suit his purposes. If that could not be done because the facts were too notorious, there was the other way of disposing of them in as few and indifferent words as possible, while to whatever suited his purposes any amount of space was devoted, and the art of the fascinating writer exercised with the utmost care. The description of ceremonies fills

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pages, but we are not told *how* Bonaparte became president of the Italian republic; Toussaint's terrible end in the Fort of Joux is passed over in silence, after the villanous treachery which led to his capture has been declared necessary dissimulation; and seven lines (iv, 205) suffice for the atrocious and absolutely purposeless murder of Palm. To guard still more against "this deplorable act" impressing itself upon the reader's mind, even the name of the unfortunate man is withheld from him. Two of the seven lines are, however, occupied in pretending that it was merely the application of "the severity of the military laws"—an assertion as unwarranted by the facts as if applied to the execution of the Duc d'Enghien.

As truth can be concealed by silence and a wrong perspective, so can it be falsified by the color of the light in which the facts are made to appear. By the master-stroke of substituting Providence for the fatality which had stood him in such good stead in the History of the Revolution, Thiers cleared the field of all obstacles in this respect. Bonaparte once set up as the man of Providence (i., 32), the author is at liberty to turn all contention against him into a conflict with Providence, and on the strength of that to quash every indictment that must be quashed if his general thesis is to stand. So far as the earlier years of Bonaparte's power are concerned, to arraign him smacks, indeed, of sacrilege. Only "some detractors have taken the liberty of saying" that "ambition" was his sole motive in "reëstablishing, on its ancient basis, the Catholic religion." We are asked to believe that the man who, in his earlier encounters with Rome, had called the cardinals "drivelling babblers," on the Nile tried to palm himself off as a good Mussulman, and in the Alps ordered a purposeless skirmish because his mistress wished to see some fighting, was now prompted by the desire "of supplying the moral want of souls." "Doubtless," remarks Thiers, "Napoleon is to be excused if he foresaw that an augmentation of power would reward the accomplishment of this good work" (ii., 121, 122). Yet he reports the First Consul as declaring:

> "Yes, doubtless, a Pope I must have. . . . With the French armies and some deference I shall always be sufficiently his master. When I shall raise up the altars again, when I shall protect the priests, when I shall feed them and treat them as ministers of religion deserve to be treated in every country, he will do what I shall ask of him, through the interest which he will have in the general tranquillity."

Besides, we have the direct testimony of Thiers to the fact that, when Napoleon was just beginning to make himself the man of Providence, he was open to other motives than that of "doing good in all things." "When in 1796 he went into Italy," we are told, "finding it in his interest (!), he protected the priests" (xii., 392).

In other particulars, Thiers's passion for "the absolute truth of facts" cannot stand examination. Every-day morality is wont to distinguish between fibs and lies. Our historian never stoops to lie, but he is far from being above fibs. His military figures abound with inaccuracies, which invariably redound to the glory of the French and their great captain. His later volumes are much less objectionable on this score. In them he speaks quite freely of the "exaggerations" of the bulletins; and in other and more important respects they compare very favorably with the earlier ones. He is still not, as he claims to be, strictly just to the adversaries of France, but he is markedly juster towards them than most of his French predecessors had been; his truthfulness has so much improved as to excite astonishment. Part of the self-contradictions with which the work is replete are due to this, and therefore reflect honor upon the writer. For instance, he first assures us that there was no "perfidy" on the part of France in the events at Bayonne and what led up to them, but that it was all the outcome of a concatenation of regrettable circumstances. When he afterwards comes to tell the story, however, he bluntly accuses Napoleon of "cynicism of ambition and lust of power"; nay, he charges the French policy with having been guilty of "fourberies." His doing so deserved all the more praise because he was the first to lay bare, by irrefutable documentary evidence, the whole atrocious plot in all its revolting details. The earlier volumes did comparatively little to enrich, deepen, and correct our historical knowledge; the later ones, however, really rank among the great historical works. They teem with new and valuable information derived principally from the correspondence of Napoleon, to which Thiers was the first to gain unrestricted access. This correspondence, and all the other sources which he was the first to utilize, have now been for many years common property, for which reason there was no call for the republication of the 'History of the Consulate and the Empire,' though in its time it was a long stride forward. Like the History of the Revolution, it is now out of date, and in many respects it was out of date even at the time it was published. If Thiers had been as truthful as an angel, he could not have got at the "absolute truth of facts" available in his day, simply because he attempted to extract it from French sources alone.* Not only where a rigorous cross-examination is required to elicit the truth, but also where merely the situation in the opposite camp must be known to gain a correct view of the field, Thiers often signally fails to portray correctly, because he lacks the necessary knowledge. Occasionally he betrays such gross ignorance that one can hardly trust one's eyes. Thus he names in the same breath Stein and Kotzebue as patriotic leaders (viii., 322), and (in this sentence) beside the great baron only the contemptible shallow writer of comedies.

The most remarkable thing in the growth of the historian Thiers is that it is, in the main, not gradual but sudden. He continues to grow after his frame of mind has undergone a change, but this change is abrupt. It is announced to the reader on the third page of the fifth volume in these words: "My reason, tempered by time, enlightened by experience, is well aware of all the dangers concealed beneath this immeasurable greatness" (July, 1807). The explanation of this is, that between this volume and the preceding one lay the Revolution of 1848 and part of what it was leading up to. The historian is getting purified by the hard lesson taught to the politician. The seed he more than any one else has sown broadcast by the creation and propagation of the Napoleonic legend, has sprung up only too luxuriously, and is fast ripening into a bitter crop. A new revolution, in which he has no part or parcel, has swept over the country. It has come without him; for him there has been no place in it; it has rushed over him; and its outcome—? Another Napoleon is making himself its heir, but that renders it all the bitterer for him, who had contributed perhaps more than any other man towards putting the crown on the head of Louis Philippe. For Napoleon Bonaparte had, in fact, never been his real idol; what he had indeed worshipped was the aggressive, conquering genius, the "glory" of France, whose incarnation Napoleon Bonaparte had happened to be. Was there any reason to expect that his nephew would become its second incarnation? Thiers had got more than he had bargained for, and that had a powerfully sobering effect upon him. But the intoxication was inborn, and therefore neither this nor anything else could effect a real cure.

"Let me be allowed a moment of enthusiasm for so many wonders, which did not last, but which might have lasted, and to relate them with an entire forgetfulness of the calamities which followed." That is the keynote to the later volumes. The political creed of one who, after nearly half a century, had still an irrepressible craving for enthusiasm in fixing his gaze on the summer of 1807, rested upon a slender and brittle moral foundation. That Napoleon's deeds were damnable, and that he was prompted to them by damnable motives, is not what constitutes in the eyes of Thiers primarily and principally the guilt of Napoleon: his real crime consists in overacting his part of the man of Providence so as to render impossible the perpetuation of what, in the opinion of Thiers, could have been consolidated and perpetuated. In other words, the true arraignment is not his ruthlessness, but that he allowed his ruthlessness to betray him into such blunders that France lost what might have been permanently secured to her of the spoils. His Napoleonic enthusiasm is now greatly tempered, but this inconsolable regret that the man of Providence took more than could be kept, and thereby precipitated the loss of everything, breaks forth again and again with undiminished force up to the last page. Therefore up to the last page we look in vain for *that* truthfulness which, at least with the historian of such times, can be found only where moral conceptions and convictions are not vitiated. Thiers relegates these to the second place. With him they are, and remain to the end, pages made to carry in due humility the train of the royal robe of Queen Glory. Only "the slanderers of his glory and of ours," "foreigners," or "parties associated with foreigners," raised hue and cry about Napoleon's spoliations and extortions and the use he made of the money for the benefit of his lieutenants. "These treasures were not taken from the people, but from emperors, kings, princes, convents, leagued against France ever since 1792." In spite of the sobering and purifying influences of the February Revolution, it costs Thiers nothing to pen these audacious sophisms (v., 79), and in the last pages of the last volume (xii., 393) he who has had the correspondence of Napoleon, with all its brazen avowals, before his eyes, still has the hardihood to write that the general, in his first campaign, laid "a discreet, just, and economical hand on the riches of Italy." Nor is he more thoroughly cured of his infatuation in regard to the grievances of French liberty against Napoleon. To hear him ask in the second volume (182)—speaking of the end of 1801—"Who would believe that, notwithstanding so much good, either already done or on the point of being done, an opposition, and a warm one too, could be raised?" cannot surprise us. Having noticed with satisfaction the new spirit which has gained a lodgment in his mind after the downfall of the July monarchy, we note, however, with dismay and some astonishment, that he speaks in the fifth volume (86) of the nation's "having

*For the later volumes he did consult, or had others consult for him, part of the more important foreign publications.

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on a day of fatigue relinquished to him [Napoleon] the trouble of willing, ordering, thinking for all," in a way strongly calculated to suggest the inference that he rather glories in it. But our astonishment vanishes long before we are through with the work. At the end of the last volume (xii., 394) we read that "the friends of liberty" unjustly "blame Napoleon for not having" given "a political constitution to the country," for, France not knowing her own mind as to what kind of government she wanted, he "could not be the legislator of France in a political sense."

Though sobered down and purified, yet only probe his mind and his heart deep enough and you will find that he is after all still the original Thiers, who in all sincerity professed to be a friend of liberty, but who prized above everything "glory"—glory, whether it was moral or immoral, whether it was a curse or a blessing to the world, whether it wrought the happiness or the ruin of his own country. Is that too harsh a judgment? The closing sentences of the preface, written on the 10th of October, 1855, read thus:

"I am convinced that in these later volumes will be recognized an historian who is an ardent admirer of the great Napoleon, the most ardent friend to France, who, while deploring that this remarkable man was so unfettered in action, even to his own destruction, is immensely grateful to him that he left us, in leaving us glory, that seed of heroes, that precious seed, which has sprung forth again in our land and given to us the conquerors of Sebastopol. Yes, even without him, our soldiers, his pupils, have been as great, as victorious, as they were of yore under him! May they ever be so, and may our armies, whatever be the government directing them, be ever triumphant! The best compensation for being of no account in one's country is to see that country taking the place in the world to which it is entitled."

What a terrible awakening, fifteen years later, from the delusion that from the seeds sown by the kind of glory he was "immensely grateful" for, a different crop would spring from that reaped by France in 1813 and 1815. Speaking of the summer of 1802, he writes (ii., 373):

"Nothing could be more judicious, more admirable, than the views of the First Consul at this happy epoch of his life. . . . While purposing to ally himself with Prussia, the First Consul concluded, with rare sagacity, that he ought not to make her so strong as to crush Austria, for then she would become, in her turn, the dangerous power, instead of being the useful ally, . . . that, to sacrifice at once to Prussia all the petty hereditary, ecclesiastical, republican States would be favoring the realization of that German unity more dangerous to the equilibrium of Europe, if it were ever accomplished, than the power of Austria had ever been."

Did Napoleon III. not act in 1870 upon this advice of the historian of Napoleon I.? All that Thiers had a right to reproach him with on this head was that he had not acted upon it sooner. Though Thiers, in 1870, opposed the war, because he justly doubted if France was at the time in a condition to wage it successfully, it was he upon whom a fearful share of the responsibility for it rested. And he was the last man who had a right to contest Germany's right to impose the cession of Alsace and Lorraine upon vanquished France. "Prussia and Austria had dragged Germany into an unjust war against the French Revolution, and they had been vanquished. France, by the right of victory, an incontestable right when the victorious power has been provoked, had conquered the left bank of the Rhine" (ii., 372). The man who went with Jules Favre to Versailles to treat with Bismarck, had penned these lines, and at the time they were published there was not a single Frenchman to protest against the doctrine laid down in them. Is there to-day a Frenchman bold enough to deny that in 1871 there would not have been a single Frenchman to protest against it if Bismarck had had to go to Thiers and Jules Favre to sue for peace?

MISS EDGEWORTH'S LETTERS.

The Life and Letters of Maria Edgeworth. Edited by Augustus J. C. Hare. Two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THOSE who are well read in the literary biography of the century will find but little that is new or strange in these two beautiful volumes, for the reason that a large collection of Miss Edgeworth's letters was privately printed, soon after her death, by her third stepmother and devoted friend. Long since, everything most significant in that collection found its way into this or that Life of Miss Edgeworth or some piece of contemporary biography. Mr. Hare's work has been one of selection mainly. His own contribution is a thread so slight that sometimes he seems to have forgotten his promise to give us the connection of events. There are many places where we crave additional information. A notable example is that of Miss Edgeworth's immediate guess that Scott was the author of 'Waverley': *Aut Scotus, aut Diabolus.* She writes a letter of elaborate criticism and commendation "To the author of 'Waverley.'" Every reader would like to know if it elicited any response. There is none given in Scott's letters of the time, but from Lockhart's 'Life of Scott' we learn that James Ballantyne answered the letter. No other letter received by Miss Edgeworth was such a feather in her cap, and Lockhart's Life is not so universally read and remembered that Mr. Hare should have disdained to mention it. "Positively this *is* equal to Miss Edgeworth" was, writes Ballantyne of Scott, the praise that gratified him most.

Mr. Hare's selection might have been much more exclusive without injury to the impression that he wished to make. Half as many details of domestic life and ordinary social intercourse would have given us a sufficiently clear idea of Miss Edgeworth's practical activities and the goodness of her heart. The lack of headaches and dyspepsia and other ailments is in happy contrast with some other biographies of distinguished persons. There is as little emphasis on others' illness as on her own. Given a predilection for pathology, it is terrible to think what an inundation of it we should have had, for her father was a much married man and had twenty-one children by his four wives. All these had their sisters and their cousins and their aunts, with such ills as the natural flesh is heir to, and a faithful catalogue of these would have been a burden greater than we could bear.

Mr. Edgeworth's marrying habit is notorious, but some few particulars may not be amiss. His first marriage was at Gretna Green, when he was an Oxford student, aged nineteen. Maria was the second child of this marriage, which proved unhappy. Hoping to do better, immediately after the death of his first wife he married Honora Sneyd, who had rejected both Major André and Thomas Day, the author of 'Sandford and Merton,' a book suggested by Edgeworth. Miss Sneyd was one of the Lichfield set which numbered Dr. Erasmus Darwin and Anna Seward, "the Swan of Lichfield," among its celebrities. Mr. Edgeworth's unhappiness at home with his first wife "exposed him to the danger of being too happy elsewhere," and he applied the wisdom of those who fight and run away to those who love. He fled to France, and was shortly rewarded for his prudence by the death of his wife and the willingness of Miss Sneyd to be her successor. The happiness of this marriage instigated a third as immediately as the unhappiness of the first had instigated a second. It was with a sister of Honora Sneyd, in accordance with her advice—with the sister he cared for least; but this marriage proved extremely happy, and a fourth, equally precipitate, the happiest of all. So many marriages meant, as time went on, a household strangely mixed but singularly harmonious. Her father spurred Maria's intellectual activity, and had a hand in all her earlier works, aggravating, no doubt, the directness of their moral purpose. An upright man, he sought out many inventions of which the household conveniences bore ample evidence. Sometimes his guests were troubled by his patent locks, fearing they might lock themselves in and be forgotten—an event not unlikely in a family which sometimes numbered a full score and had as many guests. Cæsar's simultaneous dictation to several amanuenses was nothing to Miss Edgworth's writing her stories in the general sitting-room. She gauged the interest of her stories by their effect upon her younger brothers and sisters.

The narrowness of her range in fiction does not prepare us for the extent of her travels on the Continent and the breadth of her culture, which did not, however, extend to classical studies; for these her father's drastic theories of education had no place. We are assured that she was no politician, but seem to have here more a reflection of her biographer's sense of propriety than of her own. Certainly her allusions to political matters are frequent, and marked by an intelligence that we do not often find surpassed by the women of our own time. And it is a noticeable fact that 'The Absentee,' which Macaulay admired so much and compared at one point to the 'Odyssey,' was a document central to the misery of Irish politics and industry for many centuries. These volumes, in their least salient aspects, contain many things that will serve the historian of manners and opinions hereafter. The letters reflect, while at the same time they criticise, some of the follies of their time. Now that we are in the midst of a Napoleonic revival of much natural and some artificial vehemence, it is interesting to read a series of letters that bear the marks of the curiosity excited by Napoleon's name and fame during his entire career. They pick up many anecdotes concerning him, some of which are good enough to keep.

The friendships of the Edgeworths allied them with a set on which a splendid light is reflected back from Charles Darwin's life and work. It makes Maria seem extremely modern when we find her reading one of his books, but it was the 'Journal of a Voyage' (1839). She found it delightful. It is difficult for us to enter into her enthusiasm for the genius of Dr. Erasmus Darwin, but he was a faithful friend, and death found him in the act of writing the Edgeworths a letter. Josiah Wedgwood, whose daughter was Charles Darwin's mother, whose granddaughter was his wife, was another valued friend. Still another was Sir Humphry Davy, and on the list are the Herschels, Joanna Baillie, Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs.

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Somerville, Malthus, Ricardo, and many others, the best the period could afford; and we have some account of them, always the kindliest possible, for, without being effusive, Miss Edgeworth was very liberal with her admiration and very loyal to her friends. Of these Scott was preëminent. Her visit to him and his to her were the two greatest events of her life, and nowhere does he shine more pleasantly than in the light of her admiring eyes. Of her acquaintances whom she could not call her friends, Mme. de Staël is the chief figure. It is a pity that Miss Edgeworth and Jane Austen never met. The index gives but one mention of the latter (p. 249), but there is a second, much more important (p. 260), criticising details of 'Northanger Abbey' as "quite outrageously out of drawing and out of nature," and praising 'Persuasion' with much ardor "except the tangled, useless histories of the family in the first fifty pages."

One naturally craves some mention of the rising generation of workers in the literary field, but what we get is very scant; not a word of Tennyson or Browning, though Miss Edgeworth lived in full possession of her faculties till 1849; not a word of Thackeray, though 'Vanity Fair' was written in 1846–'48. For Dickens there is only a sharp rebuke for his 'American Notes'; for Bulwer a sharper for his 'Eugene Aram,' while Macaulay is ill paid for his great admiration by a severe characterization of his essay on Warren Hastings in the *Edinburgh Review*. It is, however, on record that Miss Edgeworth enjoyed his 'History' very much. She was not unaware, in her own writings, of the besetting sin her father had so fondly nourished. Of 'Helen,' her last book, she says:

"It has always been my fault to let the moral I had in view appear too soon and too clearly, and I am not surprised that my old fault, notwithstanding some pains which I certainly *thought* I took to correct it, should still abide by me."

The financial success of her work is not obtruded—it is barely mentioned; but it was such as to enable her, when her brother became insolvent, to buy the estate and keep the family unbroken and the usual hospitality unspoiled. Several of those who enjoyed this hospitality wrote pleasantly about it, and Mr. Hare gives their reports—Mr. George Ticknor's as intelligent and dignified as we should expect. One publisher could not die in peace until he had arranged to give her ten or twelve hundred pounds more for one of her books than he had promised. Much lionized, she bore the infliction meekly, though she could not understand how Scott could "come out and stand on his hind legs so good-naturedly" when the lion hunters "rattled his chain." Quite different from notoriety was the subscription of Boston children who loved her books, for rice and flour to feed the starving Irish peasantry. No other tribute pleased her so much as that in her long life. It was a very happy one. "Old as I am," she wrote, "and imaginative as I am thought to be, I have really always found that the pleasures I have expected would be great, have actually been greater in the enjoyment than in the anticipation." An admirable temperament and the well-ordered and industrious habit of her life made such things possible.

The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland, D.D., F.R.S., sometime Dean of Westminster, twice President of the Geological Society, and first President of the British Association. By his daughter, Mrs. Gordon. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. xvi, 288. 1894.

ALL those who are interested in the history of geology, and many who are not concerned with that science, will welcome this memoir of Dr. Buckland. Coming as it does more than thirty years after his death, it might not unreasonably be supposed that a story so long delayed in the telling could well be left untold. It is easy, however, to see that on the contrary this delay has resulted in a decided gain by affording that element of perspective to the deeds of the man which is lacking in biographies that follow close upon the funeral.

Dean Buckland's career is especially noteworthy for the reason that he, next after William Smith, is to be regarded as the founder of British geology. To him, perhaps more than to any other of the early masters of the science, is to be ascribed the admirable spirit which has generally characterized the work of the geologists of Great Britain. Moreover, he was the first of the leaders who, by taste and opportunity, was from early youth led into this walk of learning: the others came to their work rather late in life. Born in Devon, a county abounding in fossil-bearing rocks, the son of a clergyman who, though blind, was intensely interested in natural history, Buckland naturally acquired the collector's habit which was thereafter to be the foundation of his eminent success as a naturalist. At Winchester School, and in due time at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, his development in the direction of geology was favored by the conditions of his environment. At the school he had about him the chalk, on many accounts a most attractive field; and at college Broderip and Kidd confirmed his tastes. At twenty-five he was a fellow of his college in holy orders, and in a fair way to the good fortune which led him through sundry livings to the Deanship of Westminster Abbey.

In a long service as geologist and clergyman, Buckland succeeded admirably in combining those very diverse functions; his easy success in a task which seems never to have cost him any endeavor is perhaps the best of the many proofs of his singular largeness of mind, and was in a measure due to his remarkable sense of humor. The part of his biography which deals with his term of service as professor of geology at Oxford abounds in rather grotesque fun—gambols in which the university don, his German fellow-workers, and the fossil creatures of other ages were curiously mingled. Mrs. Gordon has wisely put aside all notions of academic solemnity, and given us the funny doggerel and preposterous caricatures which were characteristic of the men and the period.

Although Dean Buckland, at the time of his death in 1856, was reckoned among the foremost geologists, as is shown by the fact that he was an honorary member of some sixty learned societies, the catalogue of his published works indicates that he was not a voluminous writer; in fact, the list of his titles exceeds that of his printed contributions to science. In the half-hundred papers and the three volumes of his independently published books, there is not much of permanent scientific value; nevertheless, there are few men who have left a more enduring impress on the science of geology. This impress proceeded largely from his qualities as a man—from his high-mindedness, his generosity, and his well-guided enthusiasm. His intense interest in vertebrate fossils led to the discovery of many of the most important reptilian remains; his studies of these, though never carried very far in the manner of the comparative anatomist, were set forth in his writings, and yet more in his lectures, in a way to attract the public. He was, indeed, the first great popularizer of science in his country. His place in the church did much to make the passage of geology through the trials of clerical disfavor comparatively easy.

Buckland's attitude towards the theory of a glacial period is interesting, and gives us a clear idea of his fine nature. When Agassiz first put forth his views, he found in the Oxford professor an energetic opponent. No sooner, however, had Buckland studied the facts exhibited in the northern part of Great Britain than he became a convert to the glacial hypothesis and the heartiest supporter of the new view. The notes of his relations to the great Swiss savant, though scanty, are among the most interesting features of this book. The most important, however, or at least the most visible result of Buckland's labors as a geologist, consists of his discovery of the fertilizing value of the so-called "coprolites." This led not only to a large production of artificial manures from test beds, but also laid the foundations of the modern mining industry in the earth phosphates. The work was simple, but its results to agriculture, already great, promise to be of vast importance in the time to come.

Although this memoir of Buckland is not well wrought out, is often discursive, and at many points needs revision by some one who is familiar with the geological part of the matter, it is a charming picture of a very notable man.

Ways and Works in India: Being an Account of the Public Works in that Country from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By G. H. MacGeorge, M.I.C.E., late Officiating Consulting Engineer to the Government of India for Railways. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co. 1894.

IN the early part of the century the charge was made that the Government of the East India Company could show nothing done in India for the permanent good of the country; it had simply plundered the wealth of an ancient people for its own profit, and, while preying on an ancient civilization, had given no return for what it had taken. The effects of the early work of the East India Company still remain in India, and the English rule of to-day is perhaps the most extraordinary government to be found anywhere in the world. It is an absolute despotism: in other words, it is a government in which the governed take no part. But this is not all; it is a government in which the rulers are separated from the governed by distinctions of caste and residence so great that the relation of the Government to the people is like that of the engine which drives a steamer to the passengers on board: the power of the machine is almighty, but, as every man considers himself superior to a steam engine, so every Hindu considers himself superior to his rulers.

The result of these conditions is very strange. In spite of the circumstances in which it originated and its early rapacity, there is probably no government in the world whose administration is more honestly conducted, or which is now doing more for the material good of the governed, than the present English Government of India. Even in early days it respected the religions of the native people, and it has never abused its position in the interests of sectarian or proselyting schemes. During the

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last half-century it has done an immense amount of work to improve the physical condition of all India. In spite of all this, it is doubtful whether any government has ever existed towards which less loyalty was felt by its subjects.

The book before us gives an account, in rather a general way, of the various public works which have been executed in India under English direction. The author's work is not specially well done. In his preface he states that such a work can be of only limited interest to the ordinary English public, and of no interest whatever to the professional engineer; if this admission be taken as strictly true, it is hard to see why the book should have been written. While it would have been much more valuable, as well as more interesting, if written in a more systematic manner and with more regard to rhetorical effect, it will interest any one who watches, as every one should, the great changes which are now taking place in the world, and it is by no means without interest to the professional engineer. The first sixty pages are devoted to the Great Trigonometrical Survey of the country, the description of which is of rather an elementary character. The next forty pages treat of the Public or Dak Roads, which, before the construction of railroads, were of very great importance. The last ninety pages treat of Local Water Supply, the Telegraph, and Harbor Works. The two principal subjects, however, are Irrigation Works and Railways; these occupy more than 300 pages in the middle of the volume. The Indian irrigation system is a subject possessing no little interest, and the development which has taken place in the way of irrigation canals, both under the native rulers and under the English, is well worthy of study. The brief and popular account contained in this book does little more than indicate the magnitude of the subject and the careful attention which it has received; but it is a very interesting introduction to a study in greater detail. The climatic conditions of India are those of an extremely hot country with very great variations of rainfall, but the silt-bearing rivers of India have much in common with the silt-bearing rivers of North America, and the lessons of Indian irrigation should not be lost to the American irrigating engineer.

Much more space is devoted to railways than to any other one subject. The author has made the mistake of assuming too low an order of intelligence among his readers, and has devoted five chapters to explaining what a railroad is, beginning with the origin of railways in England, and ending with a description of a standard railroad track; it is hard to see what particular place this has in a book about India. There follow eight chapters which relate properly to the Indian railway system, and these are appropriate, interesting, and well worth reading, though a railroad in India does not differ very much from a railroad elsewhere, and the study of the Indian railway system is of more interest from a political and economical than from an engineering point of view. The special conditions which make the irrigation system interesting to study do not exist in the railroad system. Altogether the book contains a great deal of information, and is one which a visitor to the East would do well to take with him.

The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. By Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Translated from the third French edition, with annotations, by Zénaïde A. Ragozin. Part II. The Institutions. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894.

TIME only confirms our conviction that in scope, intelligence, and execution M. Leroy-Beaulieu's book leaves little or nothing to be desired. If he occasionally falls into a slight error, the fact remains that to only one man in a century or more is it granted to understand and picture a foreign nation as the author has understood and pictured Russia—her government, mental, moral, and physical habits, institutions and religions. The changes and additions which the author has been obliged to make in order to bring the last edition up to date are more numerous and extensive than those required in the revised edition of Part I, already noticed by us. Of especial interest and importance is the description of the new and much-discussed institution of the "rural chiefs" (*zemskiye natchalniki*), which went into force in 1890, because at the root of the reform lay the failure of the local self-government from which such great results were confidently expected. The object of this local self-government was to train the communes, the cities, the provinces to take care of themselves. "An impartial observer," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "does not need the experience of a quarter of a century to discover how deceptive was the ambitious programme." He describes the village communes, in which alone the local self-government was really carried out, as "Liliputian ultra-democratic republics. Neither the townships of young America," he adds, "nor the *Landesgemeinden* of the old Swiss cantons could boast a more democratic constitution. The *muzhik* was king in his *mir*. As in all extreme democracies, it would sometimes happen that the commune would show itself both tyrannical and inclined to anarchy. There were complaints against abuse of power and complaints against lawlessness. To remedy these evils the Emperor Alexander III. placed the communes under the control—one might better say 'tutelage'—of the new 'rural chiefs,' whom the law invests with functions at once administrative and judicial." These "rural chiefs" must, by law, belong to the nobility, must be appointed in a certain way, and are salaried state officials. They are judges who have swept the elective class of magistrates from the greater part of the empire. As administrators they have charge of all that concerns the village commune, their police, even their financial affairs. "In short, the free Russian communes that Slavophils and democrats have raved over so, are declared legal minors under the control of guardians." The autonomy of the peasant communes, which was secured by the emancipation, the enforced isolation and deprivation of all influence or coöperation from the enlightened class, is thought to be the cause of the abuses in peasant administration, though the peasant has acquired two important aptitudes thereby: that of taking care of his own affairs, and of association.

In another addition to the original text, the author describes the curiously contradictory banks established in 1883 and 1885, namely: the rural bank, which lends money to the peasants below the market rates, to enable them to buy land, and the real-estate bank, established for the express purpose of lending to noble landowners on similar favorable terms, in order that need may not compel these nobles to alienate their land to the peasants! Another addition is a brief but sufficient comment on the new law of 1889, which allots salaries to the humble elected judges of the peasants' courts, who decide in questions of customary law.

We may deal with this translation more briefly than we did with the translation of Part I. It is not only good, but elegant. The translator appears to have heeded our advice to have her work revised by an American, and to have exercised more care in general. A little more care would have eliminated such blemishes as, for example, "*near on* three-fifths of the land tax"; "one of these zealots was saying [*disait*] to me," in place of *said*, in the usual defective Russian style; "incapable of taking up a protocol," instead of "drawing up," and so forth. Heedless omissions occasionally interfere with the sense. On page 6, for instance, the statement that "the power is left in the hands of the tribe or clan" does not indicate that it is a question of patriarchal government, as it would had it read "chief of the tribe," as in the original. It would have been better, on page 5, to retain the expression of the original, "male souls." Very few foreigners understand that "souls" in Russia are exclusively men, women never being reckoned in that way. Hence the omission of "male" is misleading.

The translator has also been more moderate in her addition of foot-notes to those which the author has provided than in Part I., and this is a distinct gain to the reader. On the other hand, what notes she does give are of value, almost without exception. Her appendix concerning the Artél, or Russian peasant guilds (the substance of information derived from a Cossack scientist of the Ural who came to America for the Chicago Exposition), is of particular interest. So is the note to p. 99, which explains and excuses the notorious practice of giving and taking bribes, with which Russian officials are always taunted. The public and individual complaint, she says, is never of officials "taking," but only of their "taking too much"; or of taking in cases where they should not take; or of their taking and then not doing what they promised to do and were paid for doing. M. Leroy-Beaulieu has already explained that officials are driven to take bribes by the inadequateness of their salaries. The translator adds that when an employee gives you information about your business or case, he is right in doing it, but is not bound to do it; therefore, why should he do it for nothing? If he hurries your case through out of its rightful order, it is at the cost of labor over hours, for which he is not otherwise remunerated. He is paid only for examining it in due turn.

The mere list of "Books," each containing from three to eight chapters, will suffice to show what a mine of information is this instalment of M. Leroy-Beaulieu's magnificent work: The Rural Commune and the Self-Government of the Peasants; Administration, Bureaucracy and Police; Local Self-Government; Provincial Assemblies and Urban Municipalities; Justice and the Judicial Reform; The Press and Censure; Revolutionary Agitation and Political Reforms.

New Light on the Bible and the Holy Land, being an account of some recent discoveries in the East. By Basil T. A. Evetts. Cassell Publishing Co. 8vo. Pp. xxiii, 469. Illustrated.

THE scope of this work is not precisely indicated by the title. The object of the author is to give an account of the origin of the science of Assyriology and its progress in recent years, and, incidentally, to point out where Biblical history and geography are elucidated by the cuneiform inscriptions. It ought to be said, also, that it does not represent the very latest

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knowledge, since it is the reissue, with an undated title-page, of a work originally published in 1892. No reference seems to be made, for instance, to the results of the excavations at Niffer of the "Babylonian Exploration Fund" under the direction of Dr. Peters and Prof. Hilpricht of the University of Pennsylvania. It is, nevertheless, a valuable and suggestive book for the glimpses which it gives of the civilization and enlightenment that prevailed when man was in his infancy, as well as for the aid which it gives to the intelligent study of the Old Testament records.

The first of the two parts into which Mr. Evetts divides his work contains a brief account of the gradual identification of the sites of the great Mesopotamian cities during the past three centuries, and of the decipherment of the inscriptions. The story of the patience and ingenuity of the scholars who devoted themselves to this task, and whose remarkable success may almost be said to be due to two or three happy guesses, is somewhat dryly told, though it is not without a touch of romance. The description of the recent discoveries begins with those of M. de Sarzec in the mounds of Tello in the swampy region near the junction of the Tigris with the Euphrates. The buildings, sculptures, bronzes, and inscriptions found here are the products of a Chaldean civilization, "the beginnings of which belong to a period of culture probably exceeding in antiquity that of any other region." The interest in these monuments to the Biblical student lies in the fact that this is now generally believed to be the fatherland of the Hebrew race, the birthplace of Abraham. Some of the inscriptions are far older than the patriarch's time, and it is not impossible that there may yet be found contemporaneous records of the great Chaldean invasion of Syria narrated in the fourteenth chapter of Genesis, in which he took so prominent a part.

The author naturally gives considerable space to an account of the Tel el-Amarna tablets, "the most remarkable archæological discovery of the past few years." These are letters written in the cuneiform character and Babylonian language to an Egyptian king who reigned about fifteen centuries before the Christian era. A few are from allied or vassal kings of western Asia, but the most are from the native governors of Syrian and Canaanitish cities subject to Egypt. That the Babylonian language was a *lingua franca* in Egypt and Asia at this early date, and that in so many places there were scribes capable of writing the cuneiform characters, are facts as surprising as they are interesting. The correspondence shows that Syria and Canaan, in the century previous to that usually ascribed to the Israelitish conquest, were in a disorganized condition and about to throw off the Egyptian yoke. Terms are used, however, suggesting the possibility that Joshua's campaign was then in progress. Certain "Robbers" or "Marauders," who are the cause of frequent ineffectual appeals for aid by the royal governors, recall the Phœnician inscription at Tangier, mentioned by Procopius, which said that it had been made by men who had been driven out of Canaan by the "Robber," Joshua the son of Nun. The governor of Jerusalem reports that the king's land had been plundered by the Khabiri (Leaguers), a word which "might on philological grounds be conceived to be identical with the word Hebrew." Extracts are given from two of the letters of this Abdi-Khiba, in both of which he refers to the fact that "it was not my father or my mother who set me in this place, but it was the arm of the mighty king." But Mr. Evetts does not assert, as Prof. Sayce, apparently without sufficient reason, does in his recent book on 'The Higher Criticism,' that this man was a priest as well as ruler of Jerusalem; nor does he suggest that the words quoted throw any light on the mysterious personality of Melchizedek.

An interesting account is given of M. Dieulafoy's excavations at Susa, especially of the palace of Xerxes, who is now identified with the Ahasuerus of the Book of Esther. Other chapters describe the astrological and chronological records and legal deeds of the Babylonians. There is also a useful summary of earlier discoveries, as the Assyrian epics of the Creation and the Flood, the various allusions to the Assyrian campaigns in Syria and Palestine during the latter days of the Jewish monarchy, and the full identification of Tiglath-Pileser with Pul. The closing chapters give some account of the culture, religion, and language of Assyria and Babylonia.

Mr. Evetts occupies a conservative position in regard to the critical controversies of the present day, evidently (in this work at least) following the traditional method of interpreting the Biblical records where the "monuments" give no aid. The general impression left by his book is that the results of Assyriological research confirm the truth of the history narrated by the Old Testament writers in important particulars, and that we have every reason to expect, with further and more thorough explorations, a very great increase of this secular evidence to the truth of the Biblical history. It is to be greatly regretted, as seriously diminishing the value of a very useful book, that there is no index. There should have been two—a general one of subjects, and one of passages in the Bible referred to in the text, together with a condensed chronological table of Assyrian and Babylonian history.

Synnövé Solbakken. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Given in English by Julie Sutter. A new edition, with an Essay on the Writings of Björnson by Edmund Gosse. Macmillan. 1895.

For the first volume of this, a new English edition of Björnson's novels, the editor has appropriately chosen 'Synnöve Solbakken,' the first romance, though not the first story, and the real beginning for us, outside of Norway, of the author's literary career. The volume is noteworthy, too, in that it contains a long study of the writings of Björnson by Mr. Gosse. At the beginning of the book is an excellent late likeness of the author, "the most breezy and turbulent," says the editor, "the most agitated and agitating of modern men of letters."

The new translation is neither better nor worse than others that have preceded it; it is, however, not yet good enough. What we need in all the translations is more of Björnson and less of the translator. The very first sentence of the book will sufficiently illustrate the point. Word for word it reads: "In a large valley it may happen that there is a high spot, lying free on all sides, upon which the sun sheds its beams from the time it rises until it sets." Anderson's version says: "In a large valley it often happens that there is a high spot, open on every side, which the sun paints with his pencils from early dawn until twilight has faded away." The present edition has: "Amid the Norwegian valleys there are favored spots of lowlands rising into gentle eminence, lying open to the sunlight from the first of the ruddy dawn to the last beam gilding the west." There are instances of this sort innumerable, and while we do not necessarily demand a literal translation, it seems a pity either to read out of the text its original inherent simplicity, or, what is ultimately much the same thing, to read into it new refinements that have grown in quite a different soil. Even through the disturbing medium of the translations there is, nevertheless, no denying the charm of this early work, the freshness of the whole of it and the perfect verisimilitude of the language and life. Mr. Gosse justly sees in 'Synnöve' and in 'Arne,' its immediate successor, the highest development of the peasant-novel in Norway; with him we are struck, too, with their peculiar lyrical quality, and like him we gladly miss the "hortatory optimism" of much of the later work.

Mr. Gosse's introductory study is like all of his essay-writing. It has by no means a few characterizations of Björnson and his books that are as felicitous as they are facile, and that is saying a good deal of a writer whose greatest charm perhaps lies in his lightness of touch. One of these remarks is particularly worthy of quotation. "Norway," he says, "supplies the oldest and the youngest-hearted of the authors of our time, the weary Ibsen huddled above the sinking embers of existence, and the schoolboy Björnson climbing trees for mare's-nests and flinging up his bonnet in the sunshine."

In shape and make-up this initial volume leaves little to be desired. The use of the accent in Synnövé to insure the pronunciation of the final vowel is, however, a blemish, and will fail of the effect desired. The diæresis would have been better. English readers will now inevitably pronounce the word on the model of, we will say, *naïveté*, which appropriately occurs several times in Mr. Gosse's introductory study.

Pictures of Swedish Life; or, Svea and her Children. By Mrs. Woods Baker. Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. 1894.

The author, in a prefatory note, informs us that she "has lived many years in Svea's dominions, and is well acquainted with her fireside doings, and so ventures to chat about them with well-loved friends over the water"; and "chattiness" in fact characterizes this volume, which is made up of a number of sketches, apparently combined without much effort at systematic treatment. It is evident, however, that Mrs. Baker has had excellent opportunities for observing. What she tells shows great, often intimate, familiarity with life in Sweden, and a kindly appreciation which leads her sometimes to pass over, perhaps too lightly, what she is unable to approve. She sketches mostly the pleasant side of the home of Svea's children, and some of her pictures are charming. There are delineations of life in Stockholm and in the country, of public ceremonies, of Christmas festivities, of charitable and educational institutions, etc., and, in conclusion, about one hundred pages of tales from the history of Sweden; care being taken to disarm criticism by the remark that "this is no solid and scholarly bit of Swedish history, nor is it even a hasty outline of its most important events. It is rather as if one were with an American friend in a Swedish picture gallery, and, pausing now and then before a striking portrait, should tell in an informal and familiar way the story of the original."

The few specimens of Swedish literature are printed so correctly that it is surprising, as

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well as annoying, to find so many typographical errors where the attractive appearance of the volume would lead us to expect greater care in the proof-reading. To give a few instances only: "tak" instead of tack (p. 11), "föscuing" for förening (p. 26), "Lödumanland" for Södermanland (p. 99), "Fou" for Fru (p. 116), "Farboor" for Farbror (p. 117), "Arbetstagor" for Arbetsstugor (p. 191), "Arbtoga" for Arboga (p. 333). The statesman, and author of the present Swedish Constitution, Louis de Geer, is disguised as "de Gen" (p. 95), although the name is printed correctly on page 408. "Lützen," not Leutzen (p. 251), was the scene of the great battle of the Thirty Years' War. Students at the University of Lund might be surprised to hear their Alma Mater called "Sünd" (p. 249), and the English reader would, doubtless, not understand that by "upland law," on page 318, is meant the law of (the province of) Upland. What would Chaucer say to "French of Stratford Atte Browe" (p. 132)? Queen *Consul* is the rather novel designation (p. 380) of Ulrika Eleonora, who abdicated the crown in favor of her husband. Gustavus the Fourth was dethroned in 1809, not 1792 (p. 394). Bernadotte, referred to, correctly, as Crown Prince of Sweden on page 402, is called the new King of Sweden a few lines further down on the same page, although he did not ascend the throne until several years after the events narrated. Mention is made (p. 395) of "the poems of Finn Runeberg," meaning Johan Ludvig Runeberg, a native of Finland. The reader is not informed that many, if not all, of the full-page illustrations (no reference is made to them in the text) are reproductions of paintings in the National Museum at Stockholm.

To those who have visited Sweden Mrs. Baker's book will be a pleasant and entertaining reminder of an interesting country, and will, doubtless, tell them some things which they did not know.

In the Dozy Hours, and Other Papers. By Agnes Repplier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

IT is soothing to the reader's sensitiveness to foreign criticism to know that this volume of Miss Repplier's essays, collected from her contributions to the *Atlantic*, is meeting with appreciative and even enthusiastic notice from the English reviews. Here, once again, is a writer of our own nurture for whom the ordinary standards of criticism need not be readjusted or adapted to scale; who does not employ dialect; whose idiom is not even "racy of the soil"; who interprets no "phases," and has no care to express the inarticulate; who, on the contrary, gives utterance to only the most clearly defined thoughts, in admirably definite, clear, and well-turned sentences; whose mental background is filled with the literary imagery that is the common inheritance of the English-speaking race, and who fortunately did not begin, when childhood and youth were over, to consciously strain after, and all as unconsciously fail of, "culture." Miss Repplier's point of view, as is well known, is as free from utilitarianism or partisanship as it is from provincialism. Her sense of humor spares neither "reforms" nor her own sex; neither the over-enlightened parents of "these exacting days," who feel that "even a young child is deeply wronged by subjection," nor the attitude of those "impetuous creatures" who seem to assume that "the seven deadly sins grow less malignant in woman's hands." Her pages can claim no merits of newer invention than those perennial graces of style and imagination that have charmed readers in the past, and must, apparently, be depended on to relieve the dulness of emancipated humanity in the future.

The sources of Miss Repplier's strength as an essayist are, however, also the sources of her weakness. Her mind is so well stored that her own individuality is oftentimes pushed, as it were, into the background; between her own intelligence and the reader there constantly flit, like unwelcome intruders upon a tête-à-tête, the opinions of this and that remembered favorite of the world of letters. Thus, in the characteristic essay on "Lectures," leading one on, by its witty and ironical protest against contemporary fads, to hope for the personal equation of the writer to its end, it is a trifle tantalizing to be finally put off with an "as for Lamb," however graceful the account which follows of that prime favorite's attitude towards the subject. If ten years hence Miss Repplier should read herself, and comment on herself as she appears in print, it is easy to fancy how charming the comment might be. For life to her is like wine: to thoroughly please her palate, it must have been bottled in works of the imagination. If there has been time for some dust and cobwebs to gather on the vessels, so much the better. "The old order passeth," she writes, "and we are sorry in our hearts, having loved it well for years, and feeling no absolute confidence in its successor." When it is fresh from the press, she does not test the flavor of existence with the same degree of connoisseurship.

It is pleasant to speculate what the result might be if Miss Repplier's intimacy with human nature were as close as her intimacy with books—her interest in the world at large as sympathetic as her interest in the world in the library; or if the prejudices of the men and women of her own day and generation had seemed to her as natural, their foibles as amiable, their inconsistencies as endearing, as those of the heroes and heroines of the days of Cervantes, Richardson, or Scott. Her essay on "A Kitten" proves her power of throwing the fascination of the living thing into a few brief pages; one would fain see it exercised on higher types—in presenting more clearly the individual features of her own mind. As it is, a certain second-handedness of view, and even a suggestion of too constant reference to the note-book, mar the fine quality of her work.

Woman's Share in Primitive Culture. By O. T. Mason, A.M., Ph.D. New York: Appletons. 1894. pp. 295.

THIS book is written in exemplification of the fact that the beginnings of all the great industrial arts are due to women. If we divide historic periods into those of militarism and industrialism, we may with equal appropriateness distinguish the two sexes in early times as the military and the industrial sex. Division of labor between the sexes began with the invention of fire-making: the woman stayed by the fire to keep it alive, while the man went abroad to fight the enemy and to bring home wild beasts for food. Man has been the inventor in every murderous art; woman, at the fireside, became the preparer and the preserver of food, the weaver, the skin-dresser, the potter, the basket-maker, the domesticator of animals, and later the agriculturist—in a word, the inventor of all the peaceful arts of life. It was the gradual pressure of her insistence upon the value of the product of her first planted food-grains which turned mankind from the nomadic savage into the settled tiller of the soil. Only after the necessity for warfare had grown less urgent, and at the same time the development of the industrial arts had reached such a stage that the labor of many hands could advantageously be applied to a single piece of work, did the arts of peace become the province of men. Co-operation and the division of labor which it permits were not possible for "her who presides at the hearthstone," and hence the later developments of the arts of which she had laid the foundation passed into the hands of the other sex.

This is a thesis which a scanty knowledge of the history of primeval times enables one to perceive to be true, and which has been frequently distinctly stated, if somewhat too grudgingly, by the unfair sex. Prof. Mason deserves great credit for the cordiality and enthusiasm with which he here sets it forth. He dedicates his book "to all good women, living or dead, who with their brains or by their toil have aided the progress of the world," and he is of the opinion that "whether we regard the history of the remotest past or the diverse civilizations of the present, the emancipation and exaltation of women are the synonyms of progress." The reproduction of the numerous accounts of travellers describing primitive processes of manufacture among the women of savage tribes of low and lowest degree makes a very interesting volume.

The more than equal share played by women in the invention and spread of language has not been elsewhere set forth with so much clearness. Savage men in hunting and fishing are much alone, and have to be quiet, hence their taciturnity. Women remain together all day long, and have constant occasion for comparing the results of their experiments in the manifold problems which occupy them. Prof. Mason quotes this passage from Payne's 'History of America':

> "The steps by which language was developed are still obscure; but it may reasonably be concluded that the food-quest had a considerable share in the process, and that not long after emotional exclamations and demonstrative names came primitive adjectives signifying 'good' and 'evil,' applied to animal and vegetable species with reference to the purpose of food, in the sense in which the African guide classes all plants into 'bush' and 'good for nyam' (the latter including the eatable ones and the former the residue). In the discovery of the qualities of plants, women had the largest share, the males being occupied in hunting."

And Prof. Mason points out that what is here said concerning the food-quest would be equally true of all the substantial occupations of savage woman's life. The Mexicans have a proverb which says "A woman is the best dictionary"; a confession based upon an induction made by the aborigines of that country centuries ago. With the exception, perhaps, of the classes of society in which men have had access to special means of training denied to them, women are still the best dictionaries, talkers, and letter-writers. The fact that silly women talk too much has made woman in general a butt for ridicule, and has obscured the fact that women who are not silly have far greater facility than men in clothing the contents of their minds in fluent, graceful, and expressive speech.

Aside from the merits which we have dwelt upon, this book leaves much to be desired—in point of style, of argument, and even of grammar. It is the first volume of "The Anthropological Series," edited by Prof. Frederick Starr of the University of Chicago. The illustrations are admirable.

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Essays by Joseph Mazzini, most of them translated for the first time by Thomas Okey. Edited with an introduction by Bolton King. London: Dent.

No better proof of the vitality of Mazzini's doctrines could be had than the fact that very recently a new six-volume edition of his works and two separate single-volume editions of select essays have been printed in English. And yet Mazzini has been more than twenty years dead, and much of his most characteristic work was written before 1840. It would be interesting to investigate the sources of this vitality, and to show how far Mazzini's views could be used to combat and correct the exorbitant theories of latter-day Socialists; but our present purpose is simply to call attention to this latest volume, in which readers who have not hitherto known Mazzini will find much that fairly represents him. The selection embraces only essays on political and social topics, and none of his critical essays; so that a stranger could hardly infer from it how admirable a critic of literature Mazzini was. His review of Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' for instance, establishes his right to rank among the half-dozen original and penetrative critics of his time. But since the social question is to-day the most absorbing question, it was not improper to mass in a single volume Mazzini's utterances thereon. The student of the intellectual processes of génius will see in the essay on "Interests and Principles" how early Mazzini formulated his system, resembling in that respect two other men of very diverse genius—Calvin and Berkeley.

The translations merit the praise of not reading like translations, and, so far as we have observed, they are accurate. But Mr. Bolton King's introduction is only half satisfactory. His general remarks on Mazzini's importance in recent European history may be commended, but his references to Mazzini's participation in Italy's struggle for independence are singularly superficial and inaccurate. It would be hard to pack more misstatements into two short pages than Mr. King has done on pp. xxiii, xxiv. To imply that the present lamentable condition of Italy may be due to the policy originated by Cavour, is like implying that McKinleyism and all the later corruptions fostered by the Blaine-Republican party should be charged against Abraham Lincoln. A novice need not be told that since 1861 the politicians who have governed Italy have persistently disregarded the spirit of the great traditions bequeathed to them by Cavour. But, after all, it is not the editor, but Mazzini himself, with whom the reader of this volume will spend his time. The book is daintily printed and bound, in significant contrast to the rude type and paper which served for the first surreptitious edition of many of Mazzini's tracts.

Concise Anglo Saxon Dictionary. By J. R. Clark Hall. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 1894.

The dolorous condition of Anglo-Saxon lexicography makes anything in the way of a new glossary welcome, and accordingly we extend our resigned greetings to Dr. Hall's Dictionary. It is impossible to give a quite enthusiastic reception to a work which laboriously announces itself, in an extended preface, as published in a hurry, before the compiler was ready, in order to anticipate the wants of the Oxford School of English, and which, in its very prospectus, proclaims the necessity, as well as the hope, of a revised edition. Dictionaries (except Dr. Johnson's) are not commonly resorted to for amusement; but there is one article, well settled in our Anglo-Saxon lexicons, which has already contributed much to the gayety of scholars. We refer to *leso*, entered as an indeclinable feminine noun, and defined by the Latin *numen*, with a citation of the proper page and line of the Wright-Wülcker 'Glossaries.' In the millennium, Anglo-Saxon lexicographers may spoil our fun by discovering—what has been the common property of other scholars for a dozen years—that this supposed Anglo-Saxon noun is but the ablative singular neuter of the Latin participle *laesus* (spelled in mediæval fashion, *leso* for *laeso*), and that the *numine leso* on which the entry in Wright-Wülcker is founded is but Virgil's (*quo*) *numine læsō*, from the beginning of the 'Æneid.' The Saxon glossator who entered these two Latin words in his list as a lemma, and either gave up the puzzle (small blame to him!) or else wrote an explanation which has perished, little suspected that he was tempting his successors to set up a Latin neuter participle as an Anglo-Saxon feminine noun. From the fact that Dr. Hall has been too conservative or too careless to disestablish this venerable blunder, our readers may judge of his vigilance in the nice questions of Saxon lexicography. To speak plainly, though he has attempted to exploit Wright-Wülcker, he has given little heed to what has been done to rectify and emend the corruptions and other errors of that work, so that *laeso* is not the only Latin word that does duty as Anglo-Saxon in his dictionary. We hope that the second edition will come quickly, and will be prepared with greater care than the first.

Yet we are loath to carp at this dictionary, even in its present vastly imperfect form. The plan is a good one, and junior students and amateurs will find the copious vocabulary offered them, with its brief definitions, all printed in legible type and compressed within a moderate compass, a valuable addition to their stock of guide-books, while even specialists, however vexed at oversights, will be grateful to the compiler for having registered many words ignored by his predecessors. The book will be very useful. Let Dr. Hall revise it as soon as the destinies decree!

Natural Rights: A Criticism of Some Political and Ethical Conceptions. By David G. Ritchie, Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of St. Andrews. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. Pp. xvi, 304.

Prof. Ritchie's apology for setting his teeth to a well-gnawed bone is not necessary: he has found some shreds of meat on it yet. Indeed, to stick to the figure as a dog would to the bone, not a little marrow is laid bare for the first time under his crunching. Leaving to Bentham the work of logical dissection, to Burke that of passionate and thrilling denunciation, to Sir Henry Maine that of showing what that ancient law really was which the French theorists identified with the flights of their metaphysic wit, Prof. Ritchie takes for his own the humbler task of tracing the historic evolution and significance of the theory, and of each of the leading examples, of natural right—that prime article of the political creed of a hundred years ago in France and America. Following the lead of M. Charles Borgeaud, he finds in the theological jargon of the English "Levellers" of the seventeenth century the main root of the "principles of '89"; itself a growth in the soil of the Reformation, it was not transplanted to France until Locke had given it philosophic cultivation. In Rousseau's garden it grew to what we know. Prof. Ritchie remarks with much justice:

"No great writer perhaps has suffered more than Rousseau from having his views judged by his weakest writings. The 'Contrat Social' is a book much more talked about than read, and the prevalent opinion about Rousseau's social theories is derived from the paradoxes of his early prize essays. . . . But even in the 'Discourse on Inequality' he recognizes that the state of nature 'has perhaps never existed, and probably never will exist,' and that when he speaks of it he is using a hypothetical argument and not attempting to describe the actual original state of mankind."

Prof. Ritchie does not take leave of the historic evolution of the natural-rights doctrine in '89; he shows its existing vitality to be in the form of contemporary socialism. In fact, with only some slight changes in form—such as the transition of the *droit du travail* into the *droit au travail*—the old asseverations of the rights which nature, as opposed to society, gives to man are to-day urged by socialists with as much passion, if not with the same aim, as by revolutionaries and republicans a hundred years ago. All these rights may be summed up in the single "Right of Pursuing and Obtaining Happiness," which might be taken as a good definition of the aims of socialism—that "large order on the bank of Providence," as Prof. Ritchie calls it. In his criticisms on the modern applications of the natural-rights theory he is generally acute and satisfying. His turn for happy characterization may be inferred from his reference to "those two scholastic theologians, Mr. Henry George and Pope Leo XIII." As a final citation, with some painful local bearings for New Yorkers just now, we give the following: "Reformers are always apt to look forward to 'living happily ever afterwards' when once the great crisis is over. But it is only in old-fashioned stories that trouble ends with the wedding-bells."

Amphioxus and the Ancestry of the Vertebrates. By Arthur Willey, B.Sc. [Columbia University Biological Series. II.] Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 316, illustrated.

The high degree of excellence attained by the first volume of this series obtains likewise in the second. Both are very creditable to American science, and will exert a beneficent influence on subsequent attempts in behalf of thoughtful readers. Branchiostoma (Amphioxus by a later name), though in the average hardly larger than a wooden match, is one of the most important creatures known to scientists, as is sufficiently evident from the mass of literature devoted to it. In systematic position it lies lower than the Vertebrates, near the Ascidians and the Annelids. Some authorities consider it to be a connecting link, an ancestral form of Vertebrate. A safer position is that adopted by this author, making it a very ancient offshoot from the actual vertebrate ancestor, or a close relative. Parallelism in evolution is here given a prominence unusual in these days of search for genetic affinities. A much greater external resemblance between Ammocœtes (the larva of the lamprey) and Branchiostoma notwithstanding, the author would make the relationship between the latter and the Ascidians to be the closer. He defines these last as more or less Branchiostoma-like animals, adapted to a sessile habit of existence. Comparing the Annelids and the Vertebrates, it is found that the closer the su-

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perficial resemblance, in somites, segmental organs, etc., the more perfect the parallelism in evolution and the more remote the genetic affinity. It is decided to be most likely that its organization would place the proximate ancestor of the Vertebrate between the Ascidian tadpole and Branchiostoma, while the organization of the primordial ancestor would be worm-like, approximately on a level with that of the bilateral ancestors of Echinoderms. Clear and comprehensive in descriptions, well illustrated, and cautious in conclusions, the book forms an excellent monograph for the student. Embryology and anatomy are brought together from all sources, the author himself making substantial contributions, and, besides Branchiostoma, Annelids, Ascidians, and Vertebrates are included.

In the historical matter the date of Pallas's discovery of the first species should be 1774 instead of 1778. As the author mentions, the name Branchiostoma was bestowed two years earlier than Amphioxus; individual preference is apparently the reason for present use of the latter. The confusion arising from this use is illustrated on p. 40, where, after the heading "Species and Distribution of Amphioxus," that title is displaced by Branchiostoma throughout the synopsis. The account of distribution and habits is to be criticised, because it takes no notice of the remarkable species, B. pelagicum, secured by the *Challenger* expedition, described and figured by Günther in 1889, from thousand-fathom water, in the open ocean, a few degrees north of Honolulu. That species is the more worthy of remark as it differs so radically from the others in dwelling-place, and because the lack of buccal cirri attests wide differences in habits.

A Treatise on Industrial Photometry, with special applications to Electric Lighting. By A. Palaz, Sc.D., Professor of Industrial Electricity in the Science Faculty of the University of Lausanne. Translated from the French by George W. Patterson, jr., Assistant Professor in the University of Michigan, and Merit Rowley Patterson, B.A. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1894.

ELECTRIC lighting has given a great stimulus to the study of the efficiency of various methods of illumination. In the new methods of distributing light from central stations, electricity was brought into forcible contrast with gas, and standards of illumination immediately assumed an important commercial value. Incandescent lights and arc lights are rated as so many candle-power; and the subject of photometry, instead of being treated in a few paragraphs in text-books of physics, as it was twenty years ago, has now this voluminous treatise of 318 pages devoted to it. Indeed, there is enough theory and practice in this treatise to warrant months of study in a technical school. The author has collected the large number of researches on this important subject which have appeared in the various technical journals, and has moulded them into a valuable treatise. The photometers of Rumford and Bunsen were once the principal and indeed the only important photometers; there are now at least twenty forms of photometers, and in place of two or three standard lamps there are now as many as there are standard photometers. The untechnical reader will find much interesting information in Mr. Palaz's treatise. On the subject of our extravagant methods of illumination the author remarks that the efficiency of an incandescent lamp is only about 1 per cent. of the energy of the coal which drives the dynamo machine.

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Beck, Mme. Berthe. French Verb Form. W. R. Jenkins. 50 cents.
Bercy, Paul. Simples Notions de Français. W. R. Jenkins. 75 cents.
Bouton, J. B. Uncle 'am's Church: His Creed, Bible and Hymn-Book. Cambridge, Mass.: University Press.
Brorup, R. P. Christianity and Our Times. Chicago: International Book Co. 25 cents.
Burn, Robert. Ancient Rome and its Neighbornood. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Burger, Andreas. Thistledown and Mustard Seed. London: Elliot Stock.
Caine, Hall. A Son of Hagar. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Chapple, J. M. The Minor Chord: A Story of a Prima Donna. F. T. Neely. $1.
Cobbe, W. R. Doctor Judas: A Portrayal of the Opium Habit. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Daudet, Alphonse. La Petite Parolisse. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer; Brentano's. $1.
Eames, F. L. The New York Stock Exchange. T. G. Hall.
Edgeworth, Maria. Castle Rackrent, and the Absentee. Macmillan. $1.25.
Edgren, Prof. A. H. Jules Verne's Le Tour du Monde en Quatre-Vingts Jours. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35 cents.
Ethical Addresses. First Series. Philadelphia: S. Burns Weston.
Fonda, A. I. Honest Money. Macmillan. $1.
Halévy, Ludovic. Un Mariage d'Amour. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 25 cents.
Hammond, B. E. The Political Institutions of the Ancient Greeks. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Hancock, Herbert. A Text-Book of Mechanics and Hydrostatics. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Harper's Bazar. 1894. Harpers.
Harper's Magazine. 1894. 2 vols. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. 1894. Harpers.
Hatch, Mrs. Mary R. P. The Strange Disappearance of Eugene Comstocks. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Higgins, C. E. Street Railway Investments: A Study in Values. Street Railway Publishing Co. $2.
Hope, Anthony. The Dolly Dialogues. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Houfe, C. A. The Question of the Houses. London: Archibald Constable & Co.
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Jacobs, Esther. Love and Law. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Jordan, Leopold. Drilby Re-versed. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
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Le Gallienne, Richard. The Book-hills of Narcissus. Putnams. $1.
Le Vatican: Les Papes et la Civilisation. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Life and Adventures of John Gladwyn Jebb. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Lott, Pierre. Le Désert. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. $1.
Lowe, Charles. Alexander III. of Russia. Macmillan. $1.75.
Mackie, John. The Devil's Playground, F. A. Stokes Co.
Macquoid, Katharine S. Berris. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50 cents.
Mamreov, P. F., Anna F., and B. A. F. Iesät Nassar: The Story of the Life of Jesus the Nazarene. Sunrise Publishing Co.
Martin, T. C., and Sachs, Joseph. Electrical Boats and Navigation. C. C. Shelley. $2.50.
McCarthy, J. H. A Woman of Impulse. Putnams. 50 cents.
Memorial Biographies of the New England Historic-Genealogical Society. Vol. V. Boston: Published by the Society.
Norton, Lord. Socialism. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Parkhurst, Rev. C. H. Our Fight with Tammany. Scribners. $1.25.
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Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. V. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan $1.50.
Wheeler, W. W. Rest. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Wright, W. H. On the Hurricane Deck. Mascot Publishing Co. 25 cents.
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